DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 209 144 SO 013 695

AUTHOR	White, Charles, Ed.
TITLE	Building Bridges to the Law: How to Make Lawyers, Judges, Police, and Other Members of the Community a Part of Your Law-Related Education Program.
INSTITUTION	American Bar Association, Chicago, Ill. Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquent Prevention (Dept. of Justice), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-89707-032-1
PUB DATE	81
NOTE	273p.; Some pages may not reproduce clearly from EDRS in paper copy or microfiche due to small and light print type. Also sponsored by the M.D. Anderson Foundation, Houston, TX.
AVAILABLE FROM	American Bar Association, 1155 E. 60th Street, Chicago, IL 60637 ($9.95).
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC11 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Community Involvement; Elementary Secondary Education; Experiential Learning; *Legal Education; Police; Police School Relationship; Program Descriptions; Program Evaluation; Resource Materials; *School Community Programs

ABSTRACT

This book will help elementary and secondary teachers make community involvement part of their legal education program. The authors believe that the active involvement of lawyers, police and probation officers, judges, and others from the community is an excellent way of making legal education real to students. There are five major sections to the book. The first section provides rationales for education through community involvement and discusses ways to evaluate experiential learning programs. The next section discusses how to activate students in the community, how to get the community involved, and how to set up state networks for community resources. The third section, the largest section of the book, describes successful projects from around the country at the secondary level. For example, in Philadelphia teachers use the courts and city government to teach students about rights. Other projects described include police school liaison programs in Wichita, Kansas, and in Denver, Colorado; mock trial tournaments in New York; using law students in the classroom; and having criminal justice professionals visit the classroom. The fourth section focuses on community involvement in legal education at the elementary level. The last section presents some tips on evaluating community-based programs. Included are sample evaluation instruments. The book concludes with an annotated listing of articles, books, and audiovisual aids. (Author/RM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED229144

Edited by Charles White

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☒ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

Building Bridges to the Law:

How to Make Lawyers, Judges, Police and Other Members of the Community a Part of Your Law-Related Education Program

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Charles J. White

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

SP013695

ABA Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship

We gratefully acknowledge the support of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention and the M.D. Anderson Foundation. This book would not have been possible without grants from these two organizations.

© 1981 American Bar Association. All Rights Reserved

Printed in the United States of America
Produced by the ABA Press

Standard Book Number: 0-89707-032-1
Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 81-6[illegible]086

The American Bar Association,
1155 E. 60th Street, Chicago, IL 60637

CONTENTS

Introduction 1

Why Do It?

Rationales for Education through Community Involvement
Fred M. Newmann 5

Evaluating Experiential Learning Programs
Diane P. Hedin 19

How to Do It

Activating Students in the Community
John F. Khanlian and Louise C. Stern 41

Community Involvement: How and Why?
David T. Naylor 68

State Networks for Community Resources
Margaret Richardi 80

Who's Done It and How?

High School Students Can "Court" Judges
Marvin R. Halbert 101

Court-Based Programs: A Guide for the Schools
Julie Van Camp 109

Policing the Schools: It Isn't What It Sounds Like!
Sharon Irish 150

Lawyer Involvement: An Essential Ingredient
Ronald A. Gerlach and Daniel A. Goldstein 158

Volunteers in Law-Related Education
Eleanor S. Barnard 166

Tapping Law Schools
Lee Arbetman 170

Involving Criminal Justice People
Todd Clark, Marshall Croddy, and Phyllis F. Maxey 181

Law-Related Externships for High School Students
Sally Mahe Ackerly, Elizabeth Benford, and Tom Nazario 192

The First Step toward Community Involvement:
How to Involve the Schools
Nancy I. Brown 204

Some Community Involvement Alternatives
Elaine Liftin 209

Institutionalizing Community Involvement
Linda Riekes, Calla Smorodin, Verona Bowers,
Armentha Russell, and Gail Y. Allmon 216

Elementary Education and the Community

The Classroom in the Community/The Community in
the Classroom
Charlotte C. Anderson 225

School-Community Partnerships for Elementary Children
Tom Thomas and Pete Taylor 235

Community Involvement for Elementary Students
Linda Riekes and Calla Smorodin 243

Evaluation

Some Tips on Evaluating Community-Based Programs
James A. Fox 249

Further Resources

Articles, Books, A-V, and Other Resources
Mabel C. McKinney-Browning 271

Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship

C. Thomas Ross, *Chairman*
Robert E. Carlson
Marshall R. Cassedy
Marvin S. Dang
Jack John Olivero
Hillary D. Rodham
Isidore Starr
William S. White
Margaret Bush Wilson
Judy Lee Young

Advisory Commission

Margaret Branson
Nancy Brown
R. Freeman Butts
Benjamin E. Carmichael
Carlos E. Cortés
Eugene Eidenberg
Edward J. Meade
Jason Newmann
John Rector
Linda Riekes
James P. Shaver
Judith Torney Purta

Staff

Norman Gross, *Staff Director*
Charles White
Charlotte Anderson
Mabel McKinney-Browning
Jane Koprowski, *Administrative Assistant*
Khani Hicks
May Nash

INTRODUCTION

The best political speech I ever heard was an introduction. It was the best because it was the shortest. Introducing Hubert Humphrey at a rally, Mayor Richardson Dilworth of Philadelphia said, "You didn't come here today to hear me. You came to hear Senator Humphrey. You all know him and his record, so all I have to say, is 'here he is.'"

You didn't open this book to hear me. You opened it to hear about dozens of creative ways of using the community in law-related education. If I can't be quite as brief as Mayor Dilworth was, I promise that I won't keep you waiting long.

Strong community involvement has been one of the strengths of LRE from the very beginning. The active support of lawyers, police and probation officers, judges, and many others from the community has been a hallmark of this movement. It has greatly strengthened programs administratively, but more important, it has provided educational resources that no other movement I know of can match. Plenty of research exists to show that an excellent way of making any subject real to students is to show it in action. Getting the community into the classroom (and the kids into the community) has made law-related education a vivid subject for kids all over the country.

This book is a "how to" book. It tells you how successful projects from around the country have done it, and provides dozens of tips about how *you* can do it. Should you desire more information, we have provided the addresses and phone numbers of all of the projects represented in this book (see first page of each article), as well as an extensive listing of further resources.

And, of course, we here at the ABA are willing to help in any way we can. We are a national clearinghouse, coordinator, and catalyst in the field of law-related education. Publications like this are one of our major activities, as are our conferences, workshops, seminars, and consulting assistance. If you want to learn about any of our services, please contact us at the address given in the "Further Resources" section of this book.

CHARLES WHITE
CHICAGO, DECEMBER, 1980

Why Do It?

Rationales for Education through Community Involvement

Fred M. Newmann

The task implied by the title—to create a rationale for community-based learning—arises in part through forces of modernization that blur our memory of, and ties to, the past. Through most of human history, in most cultures, the young have been educated not in schools, but in the institutions of family, church, workplace and communal organization. Only relatively recently, in modern cultures, have the young been segregated into special institutions for the purpose of education (e.g., Bailyn, 1960). Given the long history of education in the community and the host of problems created through school-based education (Oliver, 1976), it seems more appropriate to develop a rationale for schooling itself, especially when it involves almost total removal of children from community life. Realistically, however, we must recognize the staying power of professionalized education in modern institutions and respond seriously to a question which in other times would seem unnecessary: Why educate youth through involvement in the community?

Writers from Rousseau (1911) to Dewey (1916) to Coleman (1974) have discussed the community's educational resources for teaching critical inquiry, cooperative work, vocational skills, self-confidence, civic competence and commitment, self-management skills, moral responsibility, and other laudable educational goals. In apparent recognition of this potential, many secondary schools in the United States send students into the community to do research, volunteer service, work-study and career exploration, community improvement projects, internships in govern-

Fred M. Newmann is Professor of Education at the University of Wisconsin. He is author of Education for Citizen Action: Challenge for Secondary Curriculum *(Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975) and a number of other works on citizen action and education.*

ment, and, in some cases, social advocacy. One survey found that 92 percent of all public and private high schools have community service opportunities, and one in seven reported that they integrate community service into the curriculum (National Center for Service Learning, 1979). A national sample of adults endorsed the idea when 87 percent agreed that 11th and 12th graders should be able to do community service for academic credit (Gallup, 1978). In spite of these indications of support, and the fact that many school programs give it high priority, community-based learning occupies an infinitesimal portion of the formal education for most students.

Ambiguity in Community Involvement—The Need for a Rationale

Community involvement programs can fulfill diverse educational goals and can be founded upon contradictory assumptions in social philosophy (Newmann, 1975). A program of volunteer service in nursing homes, for example, could be instituted to teach student responsibility to serve others, or to demonstrate the way in which an economic system dehumanizes people, or to help students learn history through oral autobiography. The community is a place where students encounter truth and falsehood, good and evil, rationality and irrationality, respect and contempt for both intellect and emotion. Community experiences may enhance or inhibit psychological development; they may help to confirm either conservative social philosophy or revolutionary consciousness.

Since educational outcomes will depend most importantly not upon whether students learn in or outside of the school building, but upon the way experiences are designed, the educator's first task is to clarify and justify the goals; that is, to develop a rationale. In addition to articulation, explanation and justification of goals, a rationale statement should explain how proposed activities are likely to accomplish them and should anticipate the handling of potentially incompatible or contradictory pursuits that might be expected by students, parents or community adults who hold diverse interpretations of "community involvement."

To illustrate the importance of goal clarification for specific activities, consider student involvement in nursing homes as an activity for learning about legal problems of dependent elderly people. Students could conceivably spend several hours in general volunteer work such as feeding, reading stories, playing cards, and entertaining the residents, without gaining insights into legal issues. If, on the other hand, the experience is planned so that students interview residents about legal concerns, discuss these with attorneys, and perhaps assist an advocacy group for the elderly, they are more likely to learn about the law. Some law-related activities—meetings with attorneys, research, and advocacy—will take students away

from routine volunteer maintenance at the home. In contrast, if the teacher's main objective is for students to empathize with and gain a concrete sense of the human consequences of life in a nursing home, it would be advisable to concentrate the students' time in the home, supplemented by contact with residents' families, and not to focus on legal issues.

This analysis of ways in which a given activity might serve a variety of goals should help to clarify priorities and lead to distinctions between objectives that might best be pursued in the classroom alone versus those which can be accomplished through specific community settings. If rationales are sensitive to these issues, they will wisely avoid unconditional endorsement of community involvement, or any other general technique.

Building Particular Rationales

A first step in developing a rationale is to identify the objectives of community involvement. Here I offer an abbreviated scheme, based on a more complex process for rationale-building (Newmann, 1977). Let us consider two general orientations for generating program objectives. The first, called a "curriculum" orientation, includes common categories in curriculum literature and research: cognitive, affective, and behavioral competence. The second orientation is called "developmental," representing a multitude of efforts to construe education as psychological development from childhood to adulthood. The orientations are neither parallel nor mutually exclusive, but offer different ways of viewing the purposes and processes of community involvement.

Curriculum Orientation

Cognitive Dimension. What will students actually learn as a result of community involvement? Teachers, parents and students are understandably concerned that knowledge gained through community involvement, compared to classroom knowledge, is ambiguous, unpredictable, and often not controlled by the teachers. A rationale should speak to this by indicating the kind of information the teachers intend to transmit through the program and the ways they want students to process the information. A student intern for a legislator may absorb extensive knowledge about constituents' concerns or how the legislator raises funds, but gain few insights about the legislative process. A student analyzing the results of an attitude survey on police may learn sophisticated forms of data analysis, but not learn the rights of accused persons following arrest. While it is impossible to anticipate much of the knowledge gained through community work, the rationale should attempt to identify some minimum standards of cognitive achievement. Are there certain kinds of information and ways of thinking to which all students should be exposed? Will cognitive learning be assured

through student contracts so that students may vary substantially in what they learn, but all will show advancement in certain areas? Bloom's (1956) distinctions among knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation, for example, may assist in clarifying alternative forms of knowledge to serve as program objectives.

In clarifying the kinds of thinking we expect of students, we should be sensitive to the ways community experience can affect general beliefs about the social system. After observing a court, students might find good reasons to conclude that the legal system "works" – it resolves disputes impartially. A different experience, perhaps in a legal defense bureau, might reveal much evidence to the contrary – that the legal system perpetuates the dominance of propertied interests. One experience in a day-care center might highlight advantages of the welfare system for working parents, but another might dramatize evidence of child neglect and parents avoiding responsibility for children. Educators should decide whether they want a set of experiences that lend support to diverse, possibly conflicting views of society (ideologies), or whether experiences should be selected to reinforce some ideologies more than others. ("Ideology" is too strong a word for characterizing discrete descriptive statements about the social system. I use it here, however, to reflect my belief that many apparently isolated conclusions can profoundly influence students' conceptions of participation in community life. In this sense, simple statements of fact or belief can carry power equivalent to the more integrated systems of thought that may more appropriately be labeled "ideologies.")

Affective Dimension. What feelings, attitudes and values among students do we wish community involvement to promote and are the experiences likely to facilitate these? Affective goals such as sense of worth, the satisfactions of offering human services, a feeling of political efficacy, sense of belonging and interdependence in the human community, a commitment to due process and faith in rational discourse commonly appear in rationale statements. Yet educators frequently disavow any attempt to prescribe particular values for students – that would be indoctrination, or an unfair imposition of the educator's values. Much of this apparent contradiction can be resolved when we recognize that it is possible for educators (a) to strive for the perpetuation of some values without intruding into all areas of student feelings, attitudes, and values; (b) to strive actively and openly for *some* values without suppressing freedom of inquiry or diverse points of view. The major challenge is to articulate those areas of affect that the program will try to influence, to justify these, and to analyze student activities accordingly. Certain forms of work-study, for example, may reinforce the values of individual competition and mobility. Com-

munity service projects may place greater value on collective sharing.

Teachers must decide on the extent to which students will be guided toward explicit analyses of feelings, attitudes and values. Activities such as rap sessions and debriefing after volunteer work may be promoted to encourage expression and sharing of feelings. Surveys and interviews can be used to build systematic descriptions of values and attitudes observed in community work. Advocacy projects may require students to take a stand, justifying to others the values and attitudes they endorse. According to considerable testimony from project directors and teachers, deliberate student reflection upon their own feelings and values as well as those of others in the community brings positive educational results.

Open discussion of feelings can also generate confusion and controversy. To handle this productively, the educator must be clear about the program's affective goals. To what extent are experiences intended to generate particular kinds of feelings in students – for example, compassion for others, pride in one's work, respect for authority, anger toward oppressors, self-confidence, affection for others? Some types of feelings are considered more legitimate as educational goals than others. Most would agree that it is reasonable for a teacher to help a student gain more self-confidence, but many would object to a teacher trying to generate more affection between black and white students. While many will endorse the importance of helping students to clarify their values, clarification of some issues may be considered invasions of privacy or violations of religious freedom. Rationale statements frequently phrase objectives in terms general enough to elicit broad consensus. Phrases such as "a sense of pride in work and responsibility to community," however, do not communicate much about the program's approach to specific affect in diverse students. Should students subjected to degrading work take pride in it? Should students with a history of mistreatment by adults become trusting? To be helpful in planning, a rationale for affective goals should indicate the extent and conditions under which the program will attempt to generate or produce specific feelings, attitudes, and values in students and the extent and conditions under which it will help students clarify them.

Behavioral Competence. In the attempt to make schools more accountable and to identify precise competencies gained by students, much effort has been devoted to construing educational objectives in behavioral terms (e.g., the student will begin each paragraph with a topic sentence; or, the student will, using the card catalogue, make a list of at least five books published since 1970 on causes of juvenile deliquency). Rationales for community involvement should consider the extent to which behaviorally stated objectives are appropriate in either the design or evaluation of ac-

tivities. For example, specifying the skills a student needs to find references in a law library may be helpful, but trying to specify how a student's behavior toward the elderly will change as a result of volunteer work in a nursing home may be an unreasonable burden.

Several legitimate educational goals—like developing broad awareness of the role of law in society—need not involve competence stated in a technical sense, but to the extent that competence is emphasized, an important distinction should be kept in mind: Is competence aimed generally toward the student's understanding and *comprehension* or is it aimed toward *intervention?* The two are not mutually exclusive and often not easily distinguishable. Nevertheless, they convey significant alternative postures. Elsewhere (Newmann, 1975) I have explained how most school-based learning focuses on helping students to understand reality, with the student primarily in a passive role of absorbing information to improve his or her mind. Virtually no instruction is given to help the student change the reality about which s/he must learn. This is unfortunate, because there are ethical, psychological and political reasons for devoting more effort to the teaching of "environmental competence" or skills of *affecting* the environment.

Community involvement programs will not necessarily develop intervention skills unless the difference between comprehension versus intervention is recognized in rationale and program design. Listening to attorneys and law enforcement officers describe their work may help students to comprehend the legal system, but will not necessarily help them act upon the system to secure their rights or the rights of others. Educating for environmental competence requires special kinds of presentations from authorities, along with practical experience in attempting to make an impact.

Developmental Orientation

A curriculum orientation to rationale concentrates on the specification of cognitive, affective and behavioral goals, and then seeks to justify those goals through philosophy and social and psychological theory. In contrast, a developmental orientation begins with the prescription of individual development as the most basic purpose of education and then attempts to specify conditions most conducive to that goal.

Many law-related programs may view themselves as not operating from a developmental rationale, but more from a citizenship perspective. From this perspective the purpose of community involvement is to give students information and experiences to generate informed critical awareness of, commitment to, and participation in, the democratic process—goals stated in ways that would seem to fit in a curriculum orientation.

Developmentalists will critique that orientation on the grounds that many of the discrete cognitive, affective or behavioral objectives proposed (e.g., awareness of global interdependence) are simply not attainable unless interpreted through a developmental framework.

According to Fenton (1977), for example, it is not possible for students to understand the U.S. Constitution at a level that would satisfy most educators. A mature understanding of constitutional government requires that citizens see moral legitimacy established, in part, through social contract – the process whereby persons agree to duties and obligations to one another for the benefit of all. Most high school students, however, do not articulate this idea; instead they base judgments about whether to uphold laws on the degree of social approval or disapproval they expect to receive. Until they learn to reason in a more principled, less egocentric fashion, their contributions as democratic citizens will be limited. Developmentalists show that with increasing age and certain experiences, "higher" forms of reasoning do emerge.

Recent rationales for development as the basic aim come from diverse perspectives: Piaget's research (e.g., 1937/1954) on the progression of mental operations; Kohlberg's (1976) work on stages of moral reasoning; conceptions of ego development as in Erikson (1959) or Loevinger (1976); or sociological theory on the transition from youthful to adult roles (Coleman, 1974). Kohlberg and Mayer (1972) offer one of the most systematic arguments for this position, acknowledging the seminal contribution made by Dewey (1938). The literature contains distinctions and complexities too numerous to discuss here, but we can summarize a few central themes. If education is to promote development it must stimulate students to think abstractly, to make distinctions among social phenomena and to see commonalities and relationships, between legal rights and moral rights, for example, and to understand how these might relate in a particular court dispute. It must help students "take the role of the other," that is, to view situations from a variety of perspectives rather than exclusively from their own. It must cultivate a sense of collective identity, the realization that individual fulfillment occurs only in a social context where the protection of individual liberties depends on mutual obligations and duties among people. If community involvement programs are to stimulate development in these dimensions, conditions that follow often need to be met.

The work that young people do, whether in paid employment, volunteer service, or school-based learning should provide:

a. A degree of individual autonomy and control over the work; for example in the type of work done, the pace, the methods used, and means for evaluation.

b. A risk attached to failure. If the work carries little opportunity for failure, or if the consequences of failure are perceived as not adverse to the student, development is less likely.
c. Opportunity to care for other people such that the student has others dependent upon him or her for nurturance, teaching, and material or psychological support.
d. Opportunity to engage in collective effort in which individual success is tied to the success of a group and in which goals of the group transcend individual goals.
e. A degree of conflict and ambiguity. Students should have the experience of coping with contradictions, uncertainties, and problems of resolving interpersonal differences.
f. Opportunity to reflect carefully upon the work, preferably in a detached, "safe" environment in which the students try to articulate the personal and social meaning of their activity.

If people guiding a community involvement program wish to operate from a developmental orientation, they should seek activities that maximize criteria such as these. The criteria are not sufficient to insure development, and each could even be taken to an extreme that hinders development. Nevertheless, they can be seen as minimal conditions to strive for in implementing a developmental rationale.

Unique Potential of Community Settings

Having concentrated on problems of goal clarification, emphasizing the need to distinguish among the goals that different community settings might facilitate, it is now appropriate to recognize that certain general features of community settings make them extremely attractive, compared to school, as a place for learning.

Information Source

The most obvious strength of non-school activity lies in the abundance of information not available in schools. School libraries may be impressively stocked with print and non-print materials, teachers may be well-educated, but much valuable information cannot be found in schools. Consider searching for answers to such questions as: What problems do police confront daily? What are the possibilities for funding a new youth center? What do local welfare recipients think about job opportunities? Do law enforcement agencies neglect white collar crime? Who decides which local news is broadcast or published? Intelligent investigation of such problems requires extensive conversation with or observation of a variety of people outside of school. In addition to the rich variety of people to talk with and observe, the community also offers documentary information not

available in school. Public agencies have records on law enforcement, taxes and property, budgets, reports, minutes and hearing proceedings; interest groups have promotional brochures, research studies, by-laws, budgets, yearly reports; individuals have letters, diaries, photographs.

Students live an allegedly "information rich" existence, bombarded, some claim, with too much information. Yet certain kinds of information (e.g., as required by questions above) are difficult to find. Because young people are compelled to spend most of their time in schools and at home, their information (other than that gained in personal relationships) comes from two major sources: schools and the mass media. A third major information source exists: people who work with institutions other than schools and media organizations. People in schools and media organizations use information primarily for the purpose of transmitting it to others, but people in other community contexts use information to solve different kinds of problems: Should a new bus line be added? What are the advantages of work stoppage to gain higher wages? Teachers, because of professional training and job isolation from the adult community, cannot adequately convey information on important topics which people involved in other parts of community life can illuminate.

Meaningful Activity through Service, Vocation, Citizenship

Education requires not only rich sources of information, but also meaningful activity to which the information can be applied. The community offers opportunities for pursuit of three fundamental activities difficult to pursue in school: service, vocation and citizenship. These can be considered fundamental in at least three senses. Humans have traditionally devoted tremendous energy and commitment to them. From a psychological point of view they are considered critical in attaining a healthy sense of personal worth. From a moral point of view, justice cannot be achieved unless people participate in these activities. This is not to suggest that all people devote equal vigor to each of these, or that when people do participate in them, they always find it rewarding. Admittedly, these do not exhaust our repertoire of worthwhile human activity (aesthetic activities, interpersonal attachment, and religion are not mentioned). We can acknowledge these, however, as forms of activity which seem essential to human identity, which can reasonably be pursued through public education in the United States, and which may be most productively pursued in the community beyond the school, rather than in school itself.

Service. It is commonly observed that people need to feel needed by and useful to others, and that dependent people need reliable sources of support. Although welfare state policy, along with highly specialized profes-

sionalism, tends to reduce opportunities for lay people to take personal responsibility for dependent persons (the elderly, the mentally and physically handicapped, the young, the poor), the adult movement in volunteerism, along with several school-based programs have facilitated lay participation in caring for others. Much experience has documented vast opportunities for youth to be helpful in service roles, with almost uniformly positive response by youth and recipients of their efforts (Conrad and Hedin, 1977; Hedin, 1980). Service programs can be designed with a law-related focus. Supervision of children's play in a day-care center might not ordinarily reveal much information about the law, but through interviews with staff and attorneys, students might help clarify legal rights and duties of participants in the center. Students might perform a service by helping to prepare booklets or charts to communicate the information. Organizations such as the National Commission on Resources for Youth (36 West 44th Street, New York, N.Y. 10036) and the National Center for Service Learning (ACTION, 806 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., #1106, Washington, D.C. 20525) offer several publications elaborating on service opportunities.

Vocation. Significant commentary has criticized the isolation of youth from the workplace, not only on the grounds of lack of technical preparation for work, but perhaps more importantly because of increasing social segregation between youth and adults (Coleman, 1974). Only in the community can students experience the responsibility associated with work for pay. Courses in office skills or crafts, and career education may help in some ways to prepare students for the world of work, but much testimony recommends on-the-job experience as most effective (see publications of the National Manpower Institute, 1211 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Suite 301, Washington, D.C. 20036). Intern or work-study programs can link experience at the workplace to law-related education as in the study of contractual relationships, insurance, employee benefits, and government regulations of different industries.

Citizenship. Most obviously relevant to law-related education are activities of citizenship. Without attempting a comprehensive treatment of the meaning of citizenship, we can recognize at least three important forms of participation: *advocacy* involves trying to persuade people that they ought to support or oppose particular policies or contenders for public office; *public service* involves offering assistance to a public agency or community, for example, by helping to build a local playground, gathering information on housing deterioration, or helping potential voters to register; *governance* involves direct participation as a member of a governing body such as a city commission, a committee in a neighborhood association, or

member of a student organization. The community offers plentiful opportunities for youth to participate in such activity (Newmann et al., 1977), and these may be designed with particular attention to law-related concerns: the process of rulemaking and policymaking in community agencies, problems in law enforcement, issues in the definition of rights and obligations. Of course, citizenship as well as service and vocations can be studied and even acted upon within schools.

Authenticity—Legitimacy

Community-based activities are more likely to be viewed by students as authentic and legitimate than schoolwork, and for this reason the community harbors great potential for increasing student motivation. Adults in the community can establish authority independent of a teaching role, through competence in such areas as auto mechanics, nursing, law, hotel management, journalism, or politics. Because the community adult has sources of personal identity and authority independent of the teaching and custodial role, students are more likely to view the adult's work as authentic or legitimate, and this should inspire more student commitment to learning. This sense of authenticity can be generated not only by persons, but by institutions which themselves have meaningful missions other than the teaching of students. Hospitals heal people, TV stations inform and entertain, public agencies try to protect wildlife or to assist the poor, courts resolve disputes. Paradoxically, adults and institutions who regard the teaching of students less seriously (i.e., as perhaps only a small part of their mission) make it possible for students to take learning more seriously.

In contrast, the teacher's authority is usually based on some combination of certified learning (professional training and degrees), personal style (charisma), or legal power to control youth, but not usually on demonstrated competence in a field other than teaching. Several observers have shown how the roles that students and adults must play in school involve contradictions, interruptions, inauthentic standards of evaluation, and other features that make it difficult for students to view schoolwork as intrinsically meaningful (Newmann and Oliver, 1967; Jackson, 1968; Bidwell, 1970; Cusick, 1973; Metz, 1978). Spady (1974) shows, for example, that in addition to instruction of youth, schools must also perform the functions of custody and care for involuntary clients, certifying, and socialization to community values. Regardless of how benevolent some schools may appear, most will not be able to shed a quality of oppressive paternalism characteristic of total institutions such as prisons, nursing homes or asylums (Goffman, 1961). The experience of living eight hours a day for twelve years in an institution controlled by others, whose total at-

tention is directed toward the care and guidance of those who often have no desire for comprehensive, long-term treatment leaves many students in a passive, anesthetized state.

Schools may recognize a problem of legitimacy and respond by trying to offer more personalized instruction, more electives, alternatives, and other strategies to "humanize" the institution. The authenticity of the school, however, will always be partially suspect because of its total emphasis on the development of students—who after all may be vitally interested in other activities. Non-school institutions' activities are seen as legitimate in part because they pursue valued ends other than education of students.

Community institutions, without major responsibility for the education of all students, can focus rather single-mindedly on their ostensible purpose, unfettered by constraints that plague schools. A legislator accepting student interns has no obligation to educate large groups of students of diverse abilities, meeting in 50-minute periods and no responsibility to monitor student behavior with regard to institutional rules (e.g., no running in the halls, no smoking in the bathroom). Pressure from parents or administrators about what is taught does not affect the legislator's daily work. This concentration on the pursuit of one's craft, rather than maintaining an educational institution, also offers a certain measure of autonomy to students. Demands made upon students in an internship are more intrinsically related to the tasks at hand (e.g., evaluation of a municipal ordinance) than to the management of students themselves, as is so often the necessity in schools. A focus on the requirements of productive work, rather than upon management of learners offers further legitimacy to community involvement.

To summarize, the community contains important sources of information and meaningful human activity not found in schools. In addition, adults and institutions beyond the school, not bound by constraints inherent in school-based instruction, can elevate students' enthusiasm and commitment. As indicated earlier, however, the general potential of community involvement provides no guarantee of justifiable or effective education. The ultimate value of community involvement must be judged on the particular rationale and design of individual programs.

The Value of Rationale Building

Articulating and defending the objectives of a community involvement program, and arranging activities consistent with these, is difficult, especially if one tries to be responsive to issues raised here. We educators are easily distracted from the effort. First, we are often greeted with such enthusiasm for community involvement—from students, local attorneys and

other adults willing to help – that careful a rationale is rarely demanded. Rather it is assumed that if logistics can be managed, contact with the community will be "good" for students. Second, we are distracted by "hassles" whose solution usually does not seem to depend upon a persuasive rationale statement: school scheduling, transportation, awarding of credit, supervision away from school, evaluation of on-site student performance.

We know that community involvement programs demand much effort by teachers and others in the community. A comprehensive rationale can help to make the effort worthwhile. Precise knowledge of program goals and design of activities consistent with those goals should help to establish realistic student and staff expectations and minimize disillusionment. When a program necessitates changes in standard procedures for scheduling, transportation and credit, a strong rationale will establish the value of departing from convention. In this sense, a rationale serves as a powerful resource for recruiting students and community adults, and for convincing skeptical colleagues. Most importantly, a careful rationale can bring a sense of professional integrity and security to the teacher. Students may be euphoric over one experience or another, but through reference points in the rationale the teacher can assess whether the enthusiasm represents significant educational accomplishment. Or, students may express despair over some aspect of their work, and the rationale may help the teacher determine whether the negative feelings are necessarily undesirable from an educational point of view. In short, a careful rationale can shore up professional confidence by pointing the way through waves of educational fads, vicissitudes of student interest, and vagaries of community opinion.

The success of any program depends on many factors other than a defensible rationale, primarily the talent and commitment of staff. They must be able to design productive experiences for diverse students, maintain the sensitive balance between student autonomy and institutional authority, create helpful mechanisms for feedback and evaluation, and generally inspire the support of students and adults in the school and community. A thorough rationale will not compensate for inadequate staff, but it will contribute to program success by facilitating the work of competent staff.

References

Bailyn, B. *Education in the Forming of American Society: Needs and Opportunities for Study*. New York: Vintage Books, Inc., 1960.

Bidwell, Charles. "Students and Schools: Some Observations on Client Trust in Client-Serving Institutions," in William R. Rosengren and Mark Lefton (eds.), *Organizations and Clients*. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1970.

Bloom, Benjamin (ed.) *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*. New York: Longmans, Green, 1956.

Coleman, James S. Panel on Youth, Report of the President's Science Advisory Committee, *Youth Transition to Adulthood*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974.

Conrad, Dan and Hedin, Diane. "Citizenship Education Through Participation," in B. Frank Brown (ed.), *Education for Responsible Citizenship*. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1977.

Cusick, Philip A. *Inside High School: The Students' World*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973.

Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1916 (1966).

_____ *Experience and Education*. New York: Collier Books, 1938.

Erikson, Erik H. "Identity and the Life Cycle," *Psychological Issues*, 1:1, 1959.

Fenton, Edwin. "The Implications of Lawrence Kohlberg's Research for Civic Education," in B. Frank Brown (ed.), *Education for Responsible Citizenship: Report of the National Task Force on Citizenship Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977.

Gallup, George H. "The 10th Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 60:1, September, 1978, pp. 33-46.

Jackson, Philip. *Life in Classrooms*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Goffman, Erving. *Asylums: Essays on the Social Situation of Mental Patients and Other Inmates*. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1961.

Hedin, Diane. "Evaluating Experiental Education," *Character*, 1:4, February, 1980.

Kohlberg, Lawrence and Mayer, Rochelle. "Development as the Aim of Education," *Harvard Educational Review*, 42:4, November, 1972.

Kohlberg, Lawrence. "Moral Stages and Moralization," in Thomas Lickona (ed.), *Moral Development and Behavior: Theory, Research and Social Issues*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1976.

Loevinger, Jane. *Ego Development: Conceptions and Theories*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976.

Metz, Mary Heywood. *Classrooms and Corridors: The Crisis of Authority in Desegregated Secondary Schools*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1978.

National Center for Service-Learning. *National Survey of High School Student Community Service Programs*. Washington, D.C.: The Center (ACTION), (806 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.), 1979.

Newmann, Fred M. and Oliver, Donald W. "Education and Community," *Harvard Educational Review*, 37:1, 1967, pp. 61-106.

Newmann, Fred M. *Education for Citizen Action: Challenge for Secondary Curriculum*. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975.

_____. "Building a Rationale for Civic Education," in James P. Shaver (ed.), *Building Rationales for Citizenship Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977.

_____, Bertocci, Thomas A., Landsness, Ruthanne M. *Skills in Citizen Action: An English-Social Studies Program for Secondary Schools*. Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1977.

Oliver, Donald W. *Education and Community: A Radical Critique of Innovative Schooling*. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1976.

Piaget, Jean. *The Construction of Reality in the Child*. New York: Basic Books, 1937/1954.

Rousseau, Jean-Jacques. *Emile*, Translated by Barbara Foxley. London: J.M. Dent, 1911.

Spady, William. "The Authority System of the School and Student Unrest: A Theoretical Exploration," in C. Wayne Gordon (ed.), *The Seventy-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974.

Evaluating Experiential Learning Programs

Diane P. Hedin

Experiential education has become an increasingly significant feature of the rhetoric and practice of American education. Advocates of experiential education view the secondary schools as too infantile in their scope and emphasis—sheltering students from the realities of life, encouraging trivial peer relations, and prolonging childish personality traits. Experience-based programs, in which students are engaged in volunteer service, political and social action, work experience, outdoor adventure, internships, and community research, have been developed to increase the proportion of maturing experiences facilitated by schools. They are designed to foster autonomy and independence, to encourage a concern for others, and to provide opportunities for practical applications of ideas. Such programs have been and will continue to be a prominent part of law-related education.

Experiential learning in secondary education has been strongly endorsed by the major reform studies in the past decade. Several blue-ribbon panels have recommended that schools extend the depth and breadth of experience available to adolescents. For example, the most recent study of high schools by the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education recommends that junior and senior students attend classes only three days a week and devote the other two to education-related work or community service. While many educators and social scientists are convinced that schools must provide more varied and engaging experiences in addition to classroom study, and involve students in tasks more akin to those they will encounter in the world outside the school, for the most part this conviction has remained an article of faith. There is a relatively little hard evidence

Diane P. Hedin is Assistant Director and Associate Professor at the Center for Youth Development and Research of the University of Minnesota. The address of the Center is 48 McNeal Hall, 1985 Buford Avenue, St. Paul, Minnesota 55108. The phone number of the Center is (612) 376-7624.

about the impact of such programs on student participants. Little effort has been made to systematically test the assumptions underlying experiential learning, or to investigate which specific kinds of programs may be the most effective. The Evaluation of Experiential Learning Project was undertaken to do just that.

Initiated by the Commission on Educational Issues and co-sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of Independent Schools, and the National Catholic Education Association, the project evaluated thirty experiential learning programs in independent, public, and parochial schools around the country. Approximately 4,000 students participated in these thirty programs. The Spencer and Rockefeller Family Foundations provided funding to the Center for Youth Development and Research, University of Minnesota, to conduct this research project. Although the thirty programs involved many different areas of learning, a description of the evaluation project should be useful to those planning or evaluating community-involvement programs for the law-related education.

What Is Experiential Education?

For purposes of the study, experiential programs were defined as "educational programs offered as an integral part of the general school curriculum, but taking place outside of the conventional classroom, where students are in new roles featuring significant tasks with real consequences, and where the emphasis is on learning by doing with associated reflection."

The programs included in the study were of four major types:

- *Adventure education,* patterned after Outward Bound, in which participants are plunged into an unfamiliar environment—usually the outdoors—and impelled to master a set of new, challenging tasks.
- *Community service,* in which students serve as volunteers in human service organizations such as nursing homes, elementary schools, day-care centers, hospitals, and others.
- *Career internships,* in government, business, the arts, education, and social agencies, to allow young people to experience an occupation firsthand, to get an in-depth view of how decisions are made, and to test their competence to fill adult roles.
- *Community study/political action,* in which students study their community firsthand by conducting surveys and historical research (cultural journalism), or participate in social/political action projects that focus on efforts to influence public decision making.

Within each program type, individual programs differed in *length*—from four weeks to nine months; *intensity*—from one hour per day to full time;

nature of the reflective component – from none to a daily class related to the field experience; *characteristics of students* – from low-income, alienated inner-city youth to upper-class prep-school students, ranging in age from 12 to 19; and *voluntary or compulsory nature* – with all but three of the programs being elective.

The school programs included in this evaluation were not a random sampling of all experiential education programs in the country, but were chosen because of their exemplary features. Recommendations were solicited from knowledgeable persons in the field – in such organizations as the Association of Experiential Education, the National Commission on Resources for Youth, the National Center for Service-Learning (a division of ACTION), and the three sponsoring school organizations. It seemed prudent to study only the best conceptualized and established programs in order to discover the effects, if any, of experiential education. The goal was to establish baseline data so that other experiential programs could compare their results against these programs.

Moreover, it was assumed that the teachers and administrators who developed and directed these exemplary projects would be the group best able to define, articulate, and specify the outcomes of experiential education. In contrast to much educational research, this evaluation effort was committed to an approach that was practical, understandable, and applicable to everyday life in schools. To insure against overly esoteric research, a Panel of Practitioners (the educators who ran the programs being studied), along with educational evaluators, were responsible for defining the issues to be studied, for helping select and develop assessment tools, for implementing the research design, and for helping interpret the data collected.

Selection of the Issues to Be Evaluated

As the first step of the research process, the Panel of Practitioners was asked what each most confidently believed to be the actual effects of his or her program on students. They were not asked what they believed should happen, but what they had directly experienced, seen, and heard.

A striking feature of this testimony of concerned observers was the near unanimity of their reports. They described a core of outcomes that each of them had observed in students: greater sense of responsibility, increase in self-esteem, more tolerance for persons different from themselves, clearer career focus, and so on. Very similar lists came from small towns and large cities, from school programs for ghetto youth and for the privileged, and from programs featuring different activities. The clear implication was that there are some common threads in experiential education, and that these common threads could provide the focus for the study.

Among the observed effects reported were twenty-four that appeared with

high regularity. This list was redrawn as a questionnaire, which was administered in May 1978 to all students in the programs. The students were asked which, if any, of the outcomes listed represented what they had personally learned from their programs. The results of this survey are shown in Box A.

In summary, on over half (14) of the items, there was an average agreement level of more than 80 percent across all programs. The most positively rated outcomes had to do with self-motivation and initiative, social and

BOX A

WHAT STUDENTS LEARN IN EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

COMPOSITE PROFILE OF 30 EXPERIENTIAL PROGRAMS (N = 4,000)

ITEM (in rank order)	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES		
	Agree*	Disagree*	Don't Know
1. Concern for fellow human beings	93%	4%	3%
2. Ability to get things done and to work smoothly with others	93	4	3
3. Realistic attitudes toward other people, such as the elderly, handicapped, or government officials	88	4	8
4. Self-motivation to learn, participate, achieve	88	7	5
5. Self-concept (sense of confidence, sense of competence, self-awareness)	88	7	5
6. Responsibility to the group or class	86	3	11
7. Risk taking—openness to new experiences	86	7	7
8. Sense of usefulness in relation to the community	86	8	6
9. Problem solving	86	9	5
10. Risk taking—being assertive and independent	86	9	5
11. Accept consequences of my own actions	85	9	6
12. Gathering and analyzing information, observation, reflecting on experience	84	8	7

BOX A

ITEM (in rank order)	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES		
	Agree*	Disagree*	Don't Know
13. Knowledge of community organizations	82	7	11
14. Responsibility for own life	80	10	10
15. Awareness of community problems	78	13	9
16. Assume new, important tasks in community and school	78	14	8
17. Communication skills (listening, speaking, presenting ideas through variety of media)	77	11	12
18. Awareness of community resources	71	13	16
19. Realistic ideas about the world of work	71	18	11
20. Learning about a variety of careers	70	22	8
21. Use of leisure time	60	26	14
22. Narrowing career choices	54	34	12
23. To become an effective parent	52	29	19
24. To become an effective consumer	46	32	22

*Strongly agree and agree are combined and disagree and strongly disagree are combined.

personal responsibility, problem solving, self-concept, knowledge of the community, and learning from experience. In two schools, the students' field supervisors and parents were asked to respond to the same list. The only difference between their ratings and those of the students was a slight difference in the order of agreement and a higher incidence of "strongly agree" responses. The high level of agreement elicited by these surveys made it reasonable to conclude that the items did represent the major effects of experiential programs.

The next task was to translate what were essentially self-reports into research questions for more rigorous examination. The most frequently cited outcomes (where there was at least 70 percent agreement between students and program directors) fit into three major categories—social, psychological, and intellectual growth.

In regard to *social development*, we asked the following research questions: To what extent do experiential programs have a positive impact on the students' (*a*) level of personal and social responsibility; (*b*) attitudes to-

ward others; (*c*) attitudes toward active participation in the community, and (*d*) involvement in career planning and exploration? In regard to *psychological development*, both general self-esteem and self-esteem in social situations were assessed. Finally, two specific aspects of *intellectual and academic growth* were studied: the students' knowledge of community issues and resources, and their ability to analyze and solve problems in which there is interpersonal and/or ethical conflict.

In addition to looking at the general effects of experiential education on students, we were also interested in determining how different program forms (community service, internships, political action, community study, and adventure education) and formats (length, intensity, and characteristics of the individual field experience) affect student growth. For example, do short-term experiences of three to four weeks have any effect on attitudes? Does a program of two hours per week have as much effect as one of ten hours per week? Are some types of programs, such as community service, more likely to promote a sense of social responsibility or interest in community participation? To what extent does each student's individual experience affect the results?

Research Method

Finding assessment tools for measuring these dimensions presented special difficulties. In some areas, such as personal and social responsibility, there were virtually no quantitative measures available. Even in such a well-researched area as academic/intellectual growth, the standard tests, such as the SAT or the STEP tests, were not appropriate because the programs varied widely in their academic goals. Unfortunately, little work has been done on developing ways to measure basic intellectual skills such as problem-solving ability, the dimension we wished to assess. Not only were there few standardized instruments, but we were also concerned that traditional paper-and-pencil tests might be at odds with the practice that was being investigated. There is some evidence that students in experiential learning programs do not perform well on traditional tests, although observation of the students' behavior indicates that they have learned the concepts well. Even where standardized instruments were available, such as tests for measuring self-concept or career development, previous research offered little guidance about which instruments would be most appropriate.

Because the outcomes being measured were elusive, but significant, dimensions of student development that could not be adequately assessed by available tests, triangulation of the data appeared to be the most reasonable approach. Each outcome was looked at from several different angles—paper-and-pencil tests; systematic observations by parents, teachers, and community supervisors; student journals and writing samples; case studies

of individual students and programs; and a host of unobtrusive measures.

An enormous amount of information was collected through all these methods. In this article, I discuss only data derived from the Experiential Education Questionnaires, a series of standardized and project-designed paper-and-pencil tests.

The tools used to assess social, psychological, and intellectual growth are described in some detail so that those planning to evaluate service- and action-learning programs in law-related education can benefit from our experience. The project-designed instruments, which are not otherwise available to potential evaluators, are illustrated so that the reader can judge their usefulness in assessing these dimensions. If readers wish more information, they can write to me for copies and an explanation of the scoring system.

Social development. — A new instrument, the Personal and Social Responsibility Scale (see Box B), was created for this study. It assesses the

BOX B

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY SCALE

ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE FOR ME	SOME TIMES TRUE FOR ME				SOME TIMES TRUE FOR ME	ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE FOR ME
1. ☐	☐	Some teenagers feel bad when they let people down who depend on them	-BUT-	Other teenagers don't let it bother them that much.	☐	☐
2. ☐	☐	Some teenagers think it's the responsibility of the community to take care of people who can't take care of themselves	-BUT-	Other teenagers think that everyone should just take care of themselves.	☐	☐
3. ☐	☐	Some teenagers are interested in doing something about school problems	-BUT-	Other teenagers don't really care that much about school problems.	☐	☐
4. ☐	☐	Some teenagers let others do most of the work in a group	-BUT-	Other teenagers help in a group all they can.	☐	☐
5. ☐	☐	Some teenagers don't see a point in trying to change school policies with which they disagree because the adults control everything anyway	-BUT-	Other teenagers think it's worthwhile trying to change things at school.	☐	☐

extent to which a person (*a*) has responsible attitudes, (*b*) feels competent to act responsibly, (*c*) feels a sense of efficacy, and (*d*) does perform responsible acts.

Three semantic differential scales were used to measure students' attitudes toward (*a*) the kind of person with whom they had primary contact in their field placement, (*b*) adults, and (*c*) being active in the community. The semantic differential is considered to be a valid and reliable tool for measuring people's emotional reactions to a concept, object, or type of person. Box C illustrates the semantic differential scale for adults.

Involvement in career planning and exploration was measured by an adapted version of the Career Exploration Scale (developed by Tom

BOX C

SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL ON ADULTS

	ADULTS							
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	
1. Friendly	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Unfriendly
2. Powerless	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Powerful
3. Boring	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Interesting
4. Confident	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Insecure
5. Honest	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Dishonest
6. Changing	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Settled
7. Selfish	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Unselfish
8. Successful	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Unsuccessful
9. Smart	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Dumb
10. Unfair	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Fair
11. Competent	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Incompetent
12. Stubborn	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Flexible
13. Kind	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Mean
14. Serious	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:Fun-loving

Owens, Educational Work Program of the Northwest Regional Laboratory, Portland, Oregon), which focuses on actual behaviors in planning and exploring careers (see Box D).

Psychological development. — We selected two measures widely used with adolescents: the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale for general self-esteem and a shortened version of the Janis-Field Feelings of Social Inadequacy Scale for self-esteem in social situations.

Intellectual development. — To measure students' knowledge of community issues and resources, an instrument called the Community Problem

BOX D

CAREER EXPLORATION SCALE

In Relation to a Job or Career Field You Might Like to Enter, How Frequently During the Past 12 Months Have You:					
	NEVER	ONCE	SEVERAL TIMES	ABOUT ONCE A MONTH	MORE THAN ONCE A MONTH
45. Talked about the job or career field with relatives or friends.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Talked about the job or career field with persons employed in that career field.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Talked about the job or career field with teachers, counselors, or program staff.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Read materials about the job or career field.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Observed activities related to the job or career field.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Tried out activities related to the job or career field.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Worked in this job or career field.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Thought about racial, sex, or other biases, that may exist related to the job or career field.	1	2	3	4	5

Inventory was developed (see Box E). Another new instrument, the Problem-Solving Inventory (see Box F), was created to assess students' ability to analyze and solve problems. It measures a person's inclination and ability to perform five tasks, which Dewey suggests are central to the process of solving interpersonal and ethical problems. They are: (*a*) reacting instinctively to a perceived problem, (*b*) generating more alternatives, (*c*) considering the consequences, (*d*) choosing an alternative, and (*e*) evaluating the outcome.

Differential effects of programs. —To assess the extent to which different types, forms, and structures of experiential programs affected student

BOX E

COMMUNITY PROBLEM INVENTORY

Name one problem in your community that people should be concerned about.

If you wanted to obtain information and assistance about the above problem, which people and organizations in your community would you talk or write to? Be as specific as possible – list names of people and organizations if you know them. List as *many* as you can.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

7. _____

8. _____

BOX F
PROBLEM-SOLVING INVENTORY

You are working at a nursing home. You've come to be really good friends with one lonely old man there and you visit him every time you come. One day he tells you the only thing he really hates about the nursing home is that the staff won't let him have a drink. He hands you a couple of bucks and asks you to sneak a pint of brandy to him the next time you come. You say you can't get any because you're under age, but he begs you. What do you do or say?

1. What's the first thing you would think of to do or say?
   a.

2. What other things could you do or say—try to list as many as you can.
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.
   f.

3. Look back at what you wrote in No. 1 and 2 and list the letter of the one you think is best _____. Please explain why you chose it.

4. Choose one you rejected and list the letter of the item _____. Please explain why you reject it.

5. Explain what you think is the "real" problem behind the incident?

6. Have you ever had to handle a problem like this before?
   yes ☐ no ☐

---

growth, descriptive information on program features was gathered from students and staff. Students were also asked to rate the overall program and explain their rating. Finally, they were presented with a list of features describing community experiences and asked how often each was a feature of their own situation. Items included such characteristics as "made important decisions," "talked about experience with friends and family," and "felt I made a contribution" (see Box G for this questionnaire).

Research design. — In almost all the programs, student participation was voluntary, as is almost always the case with experiential programs. There-

BOX G
CHARACTERISTICS OF EXPERIENCE

INSTRUCTIONS: The following list describes some features of a community field experience. Please describe *your* particular experience by circling the appropriate number from 1 to 5.

	PRACTICALLY NEVER	ONCE IN A GREAT WHILE	SOMETIMES	FAIRLY OFTEN	VERY OFTEN
1. Had adult responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
2. Had challenging tasks	1	2	3	4	5
3. Made important decisions	1	2	3	4	5
4. Discussed my experiences with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
5. My ideas were ignored	1	2	3	4	5
6. What I did was interesting	1	2	3	4	5
7. Did things myself instead of observing	1	2	3	4	5
8. Given enough training to do my tasks	1	2	3	4	5
9. I was given clear directions	1	2	3	4	5
10. Had freedom to develop my own ideas	1	2	3	4	5
11. Discussed my experiences with my family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
12. Adults at site took personal interest in me	1	2	3	4	5
13. Had freedom to explore my own interests	1	2	3	4	5
14. Had variety of tasks to do at the site	1	2	3	4	5
15. I never got help when I needed it	1	2	3	4	5
16. Was appreciated when I did a good job	1	2	3	4	5
17. Adults criticized me or my work	1	2	3	4	5
18. Felt I made a contribution	1	2	3	4	5
19. Applied things I've learned in school to my community placement	1	2	3	4	5
20. Applied things I've learned in my community placement to school	1	2	3	4	5

fore, we could not use a true experimental design, with random assignment of students to experimental and control groups. Nor was it possible or desirable to demand more from the program directors than was already

required to collect such extensive data from their students. Instead, we used quasi-experimental designs. In six schools, comparison groups of students not involved in an experiential program, and virtually identical in age, grade, sex, and socioeconomic status with the students in the experiential program, were available. In the other schools, the best obtainable design was the one-group pretest-posttest. We used the results mainly for comparison with other forms of experiential programs, and not to more traditional classes.

Social Development Findings

Attitudes toward adults. — A common critique of modern socialization practices is that young people are locked in an adolescent ghetto, separated from meaningful interaction with adults. The implicit assumption is that separation breeds suspicion, if not hostility, and that greater contact with adults would promote positive attitudes. This hypothesis was confirmed by the results of our study. Students in the experiential programs, who were in more collegial relationships with adults, tended to show large, consistent changes, on the semantic differential scale, toward more positive attitudes toward adults. There was a positive change in twenty-two of thirty experiential groups. The older students tended to show larger gains than the younger students, but the data from the control groups show that adolescents do not automatically think more highly of adults merely because they have moved a few weeks or months closer to that status themselves. Their attitude depends on what they are doing, and remaining in a classroom with an adult teacher does not seem to raise their esteem of adults. Six of the seven control groups evaluated adults more negatively at the end of the test period.

Attitudes toward others. — It was also hypothesized that students would develop more positive feelings toward the kind of persons with whom they were in primary contact in their field placement, such as government officials, children, or the elderly. A strong rationale for experiential programs is that when youth become involved in responsible tasks on behalf of others in their neighborhood and community, they develop more positive attitudes toward a variety of people — for example, toward police and court officials in law-related education programs. Our data indicate that community participation has a strong positive effect on students' evaluation of the people with whom they have been interacting.

Some of the differences in students' initial ratings of various groups are interesting. In general, they rated the elderly, business persons, and children rather highly in the pretest. Junior high students, police, and government officials were rated considerably less favorably. On the posttest, the ratings of all these categories, except persons in business, increased significantly. (That business persons were not rated higher after students worked

with them is difficult to interpret; perhaps students in business internships tended to be more observers than participators.)

Personal and social responsibility. — In the past decade, there has been a great deal of public concern about the level of personal and social responsibility exhibited by teenagers. For example, 58 percent of youth 18-24 years old did *not* vote in the 1976 presidential election. A recent study of the nation's youth by the Committee on National Service concluded that youth appear to "disregard the claims of the society and are preoccupied with narrow self interest." That observation is confirmed by the finding of a recent opinion poll on national service and the draft, in which the majority of high school students polled said they owed their country and community "nothing." They showed a strong feeling of powerlessness about their role in society. Experiential educators have argued that it is precisely the lack of a significant role in the community and society that has bred apathy, cynicism, and powerlessness. Proponents of action and service learning claim that when students are placed in responsible roles in which their actions affect others, they develop more responsible attitudes and behaviors.

Do the findings of this study support these claims? Again, the answer is yes. Twenty-one of the thirty experiential programs changed in a positive direction, and fourteen were statistically significant. In contrast, six of the comparison groups changed in a negative direction, while only one improved. The overall results indicate general positive movement on the Personal and Social Responsibility Scale by those students who were engaged in new roles in the community, and no change or negative change for the students in regular classes.

The data were also analyzed by subscales, which include (*a*) sense of duty or obligation, (*b*) social welfare orientation (degree to which a person feels an obligation to other persons in the society), (*c*) sense of social efficacy, (*d*) competence (assessment of one's capacity to perform responsible acts), and (*e*) performance (actual performance of responsible actions). The strongest gains were recorded on the subscales related to students' sense of duty, social efficacy, and competence. When experimentals and controls were compared, the subscales that most clearly differentiated between them were those concerning duty and social welfare, on which students in experiential programs showed a highly significant advantage over controls.

Being active in the community. — The other measure used to assess students' interest in and reaction to community participation was a semantic differential on "being active in the community." It was hypothesized that direct participation would lead students to value such activity more highly and increase the likelihood of their seeing themselves as community activists in the future. The results confirmed this hypothesis.

While both students in experiential programs and those in comparison groups started out valuing community participation about equally, by the end of the program the experimental groups valued it more highly and the comparison groups, less, than they had at the outset.

Students in the experiential programs were also more inclined to report that they would actually perform tasks in the community in the future. One question asked students to place themselves on a continuum from "something I will do" to "something I won't do" in relation to being active in the community. Initially, all students asserted that they would be active, with students in experiential programs stating this more strongly. From these original positions, the students in experiential programs moved in a positive direction, and the control groups, in a negative one.

Career exploration. — Perhaps the most common criticism of adolescent socialization is the inability of many youths to make a smooth transition from school to work. This is thought to occur because youths lack opportunities to learn about and explore a variety of possible careers; to acquire the basic work habits of orderliness, punctuality, and attention to work; and to develop the desire to be productive in the work place. For many youths, choosing a career is the most serious and frightening decision they have to make. The specter of making the wrong career decision probably leads some not to choose at all, but to go from one short-term job to another. Many teenagers appear to have little information about the myriad of careers available and fall into the trap of thinking that an interest implies a single occupation. An often expressed goal of experiential learning is to increase a young person's knowledge of work and career options. To learn whether this goal was achieved, students were given the Career Exploration Scale. Of all the measures of student growth and achievement, this scale showed the most consistent and positive changes, with students gaining in twenty-seven of thirty programs, significantly so in nineteen programs. The comparison groups also showed a positive change, but far less than that of the students in experiential programs. Analysis of the subscales revealed that the gains of the latter students were largely on items relating to exploratory activities, and not on factual information gathered about careers. Apparently the latter can be conveyed effectively either in or out of the classroom, while the experiential approach adds the dimension of active involvement in potential career choices. It is also noteworthy that while those programs that consciously focused on career exploration — internships in government, human services, business, and the arts — did show substantial increases on this scale, those programs that had almost no organized or explicit focus on careers — service learning and community study/political action — produced approximately as much change. Perhaps young people are so eager to learn about careers that they seek such infor-

mation and experience independently. Also, since the scale measures actual behavior, not attitudes, it merely confirms that students in experiential programs did have an opportunity to learn about and try out a variety of careers.

Psychological Development Findings

An important finding of research on schools is that studying the formal, academic curriculum does not automatically lead to personal and psychological growth. In fact, there is a body of research documenting the largely negative impact of schooling on such variables as self-esteem, interest in learning, and personal autonomy. Proponents of experiential education have argued that psychological growth is more likely to be achieved through their approach to learning. They believe that placing the student in direct confrontation with practical problems is an effective mode of promoting personal growth. They claim that psychological growth requires challenge, conflict, and significant experience.

Did the findings of our study corroborate this argument for experiential programs? The answer is clearly yes. In general, students in the experiential programs (24 of the 30 programs) increased on both self-concept measures—self-esteem in relation to others (Janis-Field Scale) and general self-esteem (Rosenberg Scale). The results suggest that having increased interaction with a variety of people, experiencing new places, and assuming novel responsibilities tended to give these young people more confidence in themselves in social situations—speaking in front of a class, meeting new people, feeling comfortable talking with strangers. Also, these students gained in more general feelings of self-worth, such as feeling useful, able to do things well, and proud of their accomplishments.

We did not find evidence, however, that the regular school program decreased self-esteem. In fact, the control and comparison groups, those students who were in regular school programs, also tended to increase in self-esteem, although their gains were smaller than those of students in the experiential programs. Perhaps all seven control groups were in schools that are more effective than the average high school. Also, the very presence of exemplary experiential programs in these schools may show a strong concern for quality education, reflected throughout the curriculum.

Intellectual Development Findings

Theorists of learning and intellectual development from Aristotle to Dewey to James Coleman have stressed the necessary relationship of experience and education. Experience is both the source of knowledge and a process of knowing, and the enrichment of experience is the point of learning. It may not stretch the point to argue, therefore, that education is of,

by, and for experience. We examined this relation by looking at both academic and intellectual development.

Academic learning.—Because the programs varied widely regarding particular academic goals, it was not practical to test academic learning through any general test of facts or concepts. Instead, students were asked how much they felt they had learned in their experiential program compared to what they learned in an average class in school. Nearly 80 percent (78.6%) of the students said they had learned more or much more in their experiential program. Only 9 percent reported learning less. Whether this is interpreted more as an endorsement of experiential programs or as a critique of traditional school, the finding is not trivial.

Intellectual growth/problem solving.—Students' responses on the Problem-Solving Inventory were scored, pre and post, according to the number of alternatives suggested, the degree to which they took responsibility for solving a dilemma compared to ignoring the issue, the degree to which they justified a decision according to its consequences, and the level of empathy and complexity of thought shown in the overall analysis of the problem. The Empathy/Cognitive Complexity Scale yielded the most useful data and is described in more detail in Box H. It combines several interre-

BOX H
EMPATHY/COGNITIVE COMPLEXITY SCALE

LEVEL 1—IMPULSIVE ACTION

No reason given, no problem perceived.

LEVEL 2—IMPULSIVE JUDGMENTAL

Solutions or explanations expressed through snap judgments, labeling, arbitrary condemnation. Lacks sense of responsibility or concern for others. May recommend violence as the solution. Attention to others' thinking process limited to "beating some sense into them."

LEVEL 3—SELF-PROTECTIVE

Concern is toward oneself—not being caught, being manipulated, or looking foolish. Others are important only as threats to oneself or as dispensers of concrete rewards to self. "Looking out for #1" is the main emphasis. Concern for others' thinking directed toward acknowledgement of oneself and own problems, not that of others.

LEVEL 4—FORMALISTIC, SUPERFICIAL CONCERN

Does show some concern for other(s), but superficially so, through cliches, stereotyped thinking, and invoking conventional norms. Concern for rules and ap-

BOX H

propriate role behavior, but rules are taken as absolutes. Tends to focus on physical over psychological needs or causes. Concern for other persons' thinking is primarily directed toward bringing them to a preordained conclusion rather than helping them rationally weigh an issue.

LEVEL 5 – RELATIONAL CONCERN

Strong emphasis on love, belonging, friendship, kindness. Sympathetic to the needs of others and wants to avoid hurting them. Rules are discussed in terms of their intent and purpose, rather than viewed as inviolate. Concern with the consequences of applying norms and rules. Concern for other persons' thinking emphasized, as is opening and maintaining dialogue and generally increasing information and understanding of self, situation, and others.

LEVEL 6 – RESPONSIBLE CONCERN

Goes beyond friendship and sympathy to concern for others' esteem, self-respect, and independence. Evinces thoughtful desire to live up to personal values, shows clear awareness of value conflicts, may question whether own values are appropriate. Attention to physical and psychological problems of person, but assumptions made thoughtfully and tentatively. Cognitive emphasis on people having information or understanding to empower them to make a better personal decision.

LEVEL 7 – PRINCIPLED CONCERN, BEYOND SELF AND OTHERS

Goes beyond immediate players in situation to social, institutional causation and/or to generalized rules or principles of behavior. Evidence of complex thinking with explanations vividly expressed. Goes beyond responsibility for others' welfare to vivid concern for autonomy; i.e. beyond independence to basic rights, dignity, and self-determination for all persons. Statement of values and value conflicts also goes beyond immediate actors to apply to wider society. Focus on cognitive issues emphasizes right to personal autonomy and choice.

---

lated developmental perspectives, including Loevinger's stages of ego development, Kohlberg's theory of moral development, Selman's framework of interpersonal development and role-taking stages, Perry's scheme for cognitive complexity, and Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Both the scale and the results obtained from it are too complex to explain fully in this overview except to note significant trends. In general, there was signifcant upward movement by students in the majority of the experiential programs (18 of 30) but no change in the comparison groups. The general movement was from Level 4, in which students solve problems by applying stereotyped, conventional formulas and invoking rules in absolutist ways, to Level 5, in which students display more sympathy to the

needs of others and more concern with the intent and purpose of rules.

An example of the kinds of responses students gave may help clarify this movement. In response to the problem shown in Box F, in which an elderly man in a nursing home asks a student volunteer to bring him some brandy, a typical Level 4 response was: "The man has a drinking problem and it is against the rules to drink." Students at Level 5 generally responded in the following way: "I'd check with the person in charge to see why he can't drink. If it wouldn't hurt his health, and if he is lonely and we are good friends, then I don't see why not."

However, some programs showed positive change, and others did not. Students showed the greatest gains in those programs in which they were in a helping role (an experience closely related to the dilemmas to be solved) and in which they were involved in regular seminars to reflect on their experiences. Both of these elements were critical. Since these were common features of the service-learning programs, most consistent gains on this measure were found in programs of this type.

Program Variables

The second major focus of the study was to identify the program variables that were most effective in facilitating students' development. The clearest finding is that there is no single factor or set of factors that guarantees effectiveness. Within every program, and every type of program, there were students who gained a great deal and others who did not. While our analysis is still in progress, we can offer some preliminary conclusions regarding what seems to facilitate student growth.

Significant experience. — The strongest predictor of change proved to be the characteristics of the actual experience as perceived by the students themselves: the degree to which they perceived themselves as (*a*) having the freedom to develop and use their own ideas, (*b*) making important decisions, (*c*) exploring their own interests, (*d*) making an important contribution, and (*e*) assuming adult responsibility. In short, the most powerful experiences were those in which students participated with substantial autonomy in activities that made a difference. For a subgroup of experiential programs for low-income, low-skill youth, however, two important factors were "given clear direction" and "got help when I needed it." These were not important characteristics in the regular experiential programs, but two factors were second and third most important on both lists — "doing things myself" and "made important decisions" — which seem to be important factors in growth-producing experiences for any person. The most reasonable conclusion that can be drawn from these data is that students who have experienced relatively more success in school and life are ready for and develop from the exercise of autonomy. Less advantaged students like-

wise need autonomy, but tempered with support, guidance, and direction.

A corollary finding was that the factors that most influenced growth were not the same as those that influenced how positively students rated a program. For the latter, the key issues were how interesting the experiences were to them and whether they felt appreciated for what they did.

Taken together, these findings reflect the point made by John Dewey that what is "satisfying" is not necessarily "satisfactory." While it is important that an experience be interesting enough to engage students, that is not sufficient. The experience must also challenge them and stretch their capacities.

Reflective seminar. — Among the general program characteristics, the strongest factor influencing change, particularly in social attitudes and complexity of thought, was the existence of a seminar in which students reflected on their experiences. It did not prove to be important whether students were involved in service, outdoor adventure, community study, or a career internship. What did matter was that the experience be significant and that there be opportunity to reflect on it.

Length and intensity. — Investigation of these factors indicated that the most effective programs were those lasting at least a full semester (18 weeks) and involving students in the community four or five days each week. Programs lasting less than six weeks were less likely to produce change, but it is not clear whether they represented less absolute impact, or less immediate impact, or reflected a reaction against answering the same test items twice in the span of four or five weeks.

In Summary

The overall conclusion of this study was that experiential education programs can promote social, psychological, and intellectual development more effectively than classroom-based programs, and that the key factors in promoting growth are (*a*) that the experiences be significant and give students autonomy, and (*b*) that there be opportunity for active reflection on the experiences.

These findings add meaning and validity to the definition of experiential education programs offered earlier in this article. They were described as "educational programs offered as an integral part of the general school curriculum, but taking place outside of the conventional classroom, where students are in new roles featuring significant tasks with real consequences, and where the emphasis is on learning by doing with associated reflection." We can now say that programs conforming to this definition *do* lead to student growth and development. We hope that such programs will multiply in law-related education, where they are already a prominent feature, as well as in many other areas.

How to Do It

Activating Students in the Community

John F. Khanlian and Louise C. Stern

William Speers, columnist of *The Philadelphia Inquirer*, wrote after attending one of our statewide student workshops, "One of the grand disillusions of my life—especially after working these fields for about a decade—was learning that politics and government taught to me in school had little to do with what happened in politics and government outside." We suggest that this is true for every discipline, not just politics and government. For that reason, the Institute for Political and Legal Education (IPLE) advocates involving all types of resource persons, both inside school, to bring outside persons into the building, and outside school, to take kids away from the school environment and expand the classroom to include the entire community.

Getting Started

We suggest that teachers begin by developing a "human resource bank." A list of good candidates follows. It may be adapted for use with all of the various areas addressed in this handbook, not just the areas of politics, government, and business that are the focus of this article. A card file could be divided into the following categories (although not limited to just these):

1. Experts in Community Research Techniques
2. Opinion Poll Takers
3. Campaign Managers
4. Public Relations Experts (Political)
5. Experts in Voter Registration
6. Community Planners
7. Experts in Local, County, State Government

John F. Khanlian and Louise C. Stern are Program Coordinators for the Institute for Political and Legal Education. The address of the Institute is 207 Delsea Drive, R.D. 4, Box 209, Sewell, New Jersey 08080. Its telephone is (609) 228-6000.

8. Lobbyists
9. Political Party Chairmen
10. State Legislators
11. League of Women Voters Officials
12. Law Enforcement Officials
13. Lawyers with Expertise in Criminal Justice and Individual Rights
14. News Reporters
15. Experts in Simulation Gaming

Once the school year is under way, students can help develop a directory of human and organizational resources as part of a class assignment. Such a listing should include names, titles, addresses, and telephone numbers of individuals to be contacted for classroom presentations or specific information. See Box A for an example of how the section on state government resources might look. (All boxes are at the end of the article.)

The bank of available resource people does not have to include only the "V.I.P." types listed in the box. Students can often provide contacts with their parents or people they know who are police or probation officers, local party activists, local business leaders, and the like.

The easiest way to merge the community and the classroom is to invite individuals in the "human resource bank" to the school for in-class presentations and question-and-answer dialogue. Not only will students have first-hand access to expertise in a particular subject, but an outside speaker provides a needed change of pace in classroom activity. The keys to effective use of outsiders are careful selection, and clearly defined objectives. Students in the class are best prepared for such a visit if it occurs as a follow-up to previous exploration of the topic under consideration; in this way they will have acquired sufficient knowledge to draw up specific questions in advance.

Making Arrangements

A brief guide for arranging visits of community resource people follows:

1. Make your request at least 3-4 weeks in advance if at all possible.
2. Provide guest with valuable background information such as:
   a. Name of school
   b. Grade level
   c. Number of students
   d. Character or nature of audience
   e. Place and physical conditions for the presentations
   f. Time and date

g. Length of program
h. School personnel responsible
i. Lesson preparation for visit
j. Objectives for visit
k. Topics or class activity to be pursued

3. Arrange time to meet and discuss immediately prior to the class session.
4. Request some sort of biographical sketch of guest.
5. Develop a personal friendship with the guest. He or she may be nervously anticipating the worst.
6. Follow up the visitation with at least a thank you note.
7. Administer attitudinal tests to students before and after visitations. They are effective in evaluating the impact of the experience.

The invited guest needs information about the desired format. Here are four suggestions for classroom use of outside experts:

Lecture Presentations and Follow-Ups to Lectures

Lecture presentations by experts (town managers, school superintendents, legislators) can be effective if students' attention span and level of knowledge are kept in mind.

A good way to open a unit on local government, for example, is to spend an introductory day visiting the town hall and listening to a presentation by the town manager, mayor, and council president on how they perceive their roles and those of other city administration employees.

This presentation may be followed by a tour of the town hall and introductions to the various department heads—police chief, town clerk, department of streets and sanitation head, etc.—to explain their roles. This day of introductory activities should then be followed by scheduling student interns to work in the various departments of town governments.

You can introduce legislative lobbying with newspaper articles and books regarding the role of the lobbyist and the different types of lobbyists. Examples are those professionals affiliated with, and paid by, a group or industry and those concerned citizens who have a personal interest in a piece of legislation and lobby effectively without remuneration. Professional lobbyists (private and public interest) can be invited to the classroom to talk with students. A useful session can stress the power that the lobbyist wields and can address pre-conceived notions that the students might have about lobbyists and lobbying. Emphasis should be placed on teaching students that they have the ability and responsibility to become effective citizens and lobbyists themselves. Students may learn that legislators listen

to students, appreciate sincere student commitment, and are aware that students are part of the electorate.

In follow-up discussions, the teacher acts as a catalyst in developing student priorities. Once they have identified specific interests, the students can then conduct research into present legislation relating to their personal concerns.

In some instances, where no available legislation pertains to their concern, the teacher can direct the students toward organizations, legislators, and people with the ability to assist the students in drafting new legislation.

Question-and-Answer Sessions

This technique can best be employed after students have learned through experience, either classroom or interning, the fundamental aspects of what the visiting community person does. Question-and-answer sessions can be held anywhere, but they are most successful in the environment of the expert, such as the gallery of the legislature, the campaign headquarters of a candidate, or the chambers of a judge. (Question-and-answer sessions may be combined with lecture presentations, of course, to fit given needs.)

Panel Discussions

A group of experts can often be used effectively in a panel discussion. Important for success is the thoughtful selection of the participants. Individuals with varying experiences, viewpoints, and opinions on a particular issue can be invited to engage in dialogue with each other and the class, but try to avoid a panel made up of individuals who may have interpersonal antagonisms (such as opposing candidates in a particularly dirty political campaign) or who represent such diametrically opposed views (as pro-abortion vs. "right to life" advocates) that the discussions could easily deteriorate into a shouting match. In these situations, such persons are best invited to class individually, on successive days, where a more candid yet low-keyed expression of their viewpoints can be given. An example of an effective panel exploration of "The Legislative Process" might include:

- a professional lobbyist for a large private interest group
- a representative of a citizens' lobby like Common Cause
- a state senator or assemblyman

Participation in Simulation Exercises

Experts can enhance the value of simulation exercises by first observing the participation of students in the simulation and then participating themselves in the follow-up discussion. For instance, local attorneys or legislators might be helpful in reviewing bills written by students in "There Ought to Be a Law" exercises. (In some cases, representatives have even

agreed to introduce student-drafted legislation and sponsor it for passage in their legislatures.) In conducting the "Northburg Highway Problem" or "Urbandyne" simulations – both of which focus on urban land use and development – resource persons such as a Chamber of Commerce representative, an environmentalist, and/or a member of the local planning board could add their expertise and perspectives by being in class for the game itself and participating in the "debriefing."

Field Trips

Beyond the school walls, politicians, government officials and business leaders can participate in several ways. For example, leaders of these three communities can open up their offices and/or places of business for field trips in the traditional sense. They can serve as resource persons for workshops held outside of school. They can provide ongoing opportunities for student internships. Finally, they can serve as informal, ad hoc advisors or as a duly constituted board of advisors to the citizenship class. All of these examples will be discussed further on in this article.

Field trips outside the classroom, if well planned, can be useful in integrating the curriculum with the activities of the school's community. Watch out for public relations tours of facilities which do not accurately reflect institutions as they really are. (The teacher may wish to "take the trip" ahead of time to check details and decide what arrangements need to be made.)

Also, sensitivity is needed to insure that people under observation do not feel like exhibits on display. For example, if the teacher arranges a visit by the students to a drug rehabilitation center, a juvenile house of detention, or Juveniles in Need of Supervision (JINS) shelter, every effort should be made to have the students talk with the young residents in an informal "rap session."

Field trips need not involve the entire class, but can be limited to only a few students who make appointments to interview individuals, such as the local town manager, or who do "meeting-watching," sitting in on several sessions of a council, be it a school board, city council, zoning board, or whatever.

In addition to making arrangements for the field experience itself, the teacher must be sure to follow all normal procedures which a school requires for arranging field trips. These usually include:

1. scheduling trips to minimize other possible school conflicts;
2. securing advance approval from the administration and/or school board;
3. notifying other faculty of students who will be participating;

4. securing signed parental permission forms and adult chaperonage;
5. arranging transportation (cars, public transit, or request for school bus); and
6. making food arrangements and collecting funds.

It will make the field trip much more meaningful for the students if discussion takes place in class prior to the experience (perhaps a checklist of what to look for can be developed) and also the day after (what did the students see, hear, learn, and feel?).

Workshops

The purpose of regional and statewide workshops is to gather together resource persons who are experts in their fields, people who would not ordinarily be available to work with individual schools. By bringing these people together with students and teachers from all over the state to discuss a specific area, we make the most of volunteered time and allow more students to avail themselves of the collected expertise. As columnist William Speers puts it, "students are exposed to the people actually working in the system—officeholders, lobbyists, politicians," and businessmen. He goes on to describe the day.

> Time allowed each student to attend three of six seminars offered. I went to the ones on 19-year-old-drinking, automobile insurance, and land use. The others were on issues in education, casinos, and the state energy plan.
>
> In the drinking-age seminar, the students got a you-are-there look at the officeholder who must respond to his constituents' howls (State Senator Lee Laskin), a special interest group (Ben Risoldi, head of New Jersey License Beverage Association) and the dispassionate researcher (Greg Law, an aide to State Senator Barry Parker).
>
> Then the kids piped up. One girl insisted that 18-to-21 year olds go to bars to dance and to socialize, not necessarily to drink: "If you raise the age, where will they go?" A boy claimed that if the age were raised, it would only lead to blackmarketing via New York. And another boy suggested that 18-year-olds be permitted to drink at bars but that the age be raised to 21 to buy package goods.
>
> In the auto insurance seminar, students met a lobbyist for the New Jersey Public Interest Research Group (funded by students at Rutgers), a representative from the insurance commissioner's office, and an officer from the Keystone Insurance Company.
>
> Here students heard some lively zinging among a businessman who sought a fair deal for his stockholders, a public servant seeking a fair shake for the driver and the lobbyist who wanted young drivers to be

judged as individuals, not by one of the industry's 220 categories.

In the land use seminar the three speakers role-played (a land developer, a regional state planner, and a local planner) an actual land-use conflict in the Pine Barrens that is headed for court. After hearing the pleas from the developer and regional planner, the kids were asked to become the local planner and make a decision.

All but three sided with the regional planner and were outraged to learn that in real life, the local planner decided for the developer. And that's why the case is in court.

It's a dull, tedious business, these matters of governing ourselves. And it's inviting to leave it to those who choose it. But IPLE shows citizens when it's early that you risk a royal shafting when you abdicate your responsibility to community.

You should carefully select guest trainers and resource people from the community. Try to find people who both know their subject and can communicate it. It is often useful to invite a prominent figure to deliver a keynote address for the workshop. This person should be not only well known, but also a recognized authority in his or her field. For example, U.S. Senator (then candidate) Bill Bradley debated his Republican opponent Jeffrey Bell at our last elections workshop. The Honorable Richard J. Hughes, former New Jersey governor and later chief justice of the New Jersey Supreme Court, shared his personal perspectives on issues with students at our 1980 government workshop. By using excellent, locally available people you can establish an ongoing rapport which may be mutually beneficial.

The role of the trainer or resource person should be clearly defined and expectations precisely stated. You may make initial contact by telephone, but a confirming letter enumerating all the specifics of time, date, place, and responsibilities is mandatory. Make provisions for any special equipment needed by the resource person. Exchange home telephone numbers in the event that inclement weather or last-minute changes necessitate reaching people after normal business hours.

Where feasible, you should conduct a coordinating meeting with all resource people prior to the workshop date to discuss roles. Or you can hold a brief session on the date of the workshop. Urge trainers to use as many different teaching strategies and techniques, other than lecture, as possible – e.g., panels, question and answer sessions, small group discussions, role playing, films. In this manner, you can keep students interested throughout the program. Encourage resource people to bring any pertinent materials related to their organization and expertise. Select other appropriate handouts early enough to allow for printing.

In Boxes B and C are agendas of some state government and voter education workshops held in the past few years. They will offer the reader a look at the variety of government and business leaders used as resource persons.

Workshop topics are repeated two or three times throughout the day to enable students to attend several sessions. The sessions are usually small, 30-50 students, so that a lively discussion can take place. We encourage students to attend as many sessions as possible. The role of the teacher is one of a coordinator. We ask the teacher to divide up the class so that each session is attended by someone from the group. Teachers encourage students to research workshop topics in advance and come prepared to discuss, ask questions, and take notes so that they will be able to report back to the class on what happened in each session and what conclusions were reached. The workshop thus becomes more than just a fun day out of school. It becomes a real participatory learning experience, which can not only be evaluated back into the classroom, but also serve to supplement classroom learning and even motivate students to become involved in areas that a teacher does not always have time for in class.

Internships

Student internships go beyond field trips and one-day workshops, since the experience is an ongoing one, sometimes involving an entire semester. Perhaps the most effective use of outside experts lies in their direction and supervision of student interns.

Student interns are participant/observers working with the expert in their environments. Thus a student might work in a campaign headquarters alongside the campaign manager, or at the police desk along with the dispatcher, or at the chamber of commerce. The purpose of placing students with officials in different levels and agencies of government is to give them first-hand experience in the day-to-day operation of government.

The specifics of such a program should be worked out between the student and the agency and can be structured and sequenced according to the amount of time the student is giving to the internship. In such a program there is room for both the practical and theoretical: i.e., in addition to on-the-spot experience, students might be expected to work out a reading program related to their specific agency. Students should keep a log of their activities, periodically share their experiences with others in the class, and ultimately submit a report based on their internship and reading program.

Four Internship Models

The degree to which a student intern is an observer, a participant, or some combination of the two will vary considerably from one placement to

another and according to the particular individuals involved. The following four models are points along a continuum. They provide examples of what internships might be.

1. *The Total Participant.* In this type of interning the student becomes a peer to those involved in the activity under study. For example, a student may become so involved in an election campaign that s/he appears to be a campaign worker. Although exciting for those involved, this total participation often makes it difficult for the student to see and analyze activities beyond those in which s/he is directly involved. Thus, a student may emerge with the impression that campaigning is all telephoning.
2. *The Participant as Observer.* At this point in the continuum the student intern, although involved directly as a participant, still has the opportunity at times to sit back as an observer and examine the broader picture.

   In this setting, which may be the most effective as a learning situation, the student is as concerned with the "why's" as the "how's" of the work. Questions will arise such as: How does telephoning 75 people on North Main Street fit into the campaign? Why has this street been targeted? Why are the voters in this area considered persuadable?
3. *The Observer as Participant.* In this third model, the intern has little direct input into the situation, but assumes the role of a more passive researcher. If an intern were assigned to a state legislator, for example, the intern would be unlikely to have the opportunity to author legislation or participate in a role call vote, but would instead spend most of the time acting as an observer of the legislature, contributing only as an administrative or legislative aide.
4. *The Observer.* In certain situations the intern may not participate in any appreciable degree. If an intern is assigned to a county judge, the student may spend the entire day observing the disposition of cases at the county court house.

Arranging for Internships and Student Political Involvement

Developing contacts for possible internships can occur at the same time the teacher organizes a "human resource bank" and/or a mini-board of advisors for the class. Letters to political and governmental officials as well as business leaders informing them of the objective of the program can be followed by personal contacts. It is advisable to set up an internship planning session at a mutually convenient time, involving the appropriate official(s), the teacher/coordinator, and a student leader.

In planning for student involvement in political parties and campaigns, the program must be totally bipartisan, not only in fact but in appearance. This bipartisan perception is important not only in communities where hotly contested races between the two parties occur, but also in "one-party" communities. Nothing can cripple a citizenship program more severely than for one or the other party to condemn the class as a political tool of the opposing side.

In the interest of maintaining a bipartisan posture, several suggested steps should be taken by the teacher in dealing with the parties.

1. As soon as possible, contact the political party chairpeople of your district (county or municipality) to explain the interning program and the way in which the interns could assist in the election campaign. The teacher will find that the chairperson will be delighted at the prospect of an infusion of new volunteers into the campaign. At the meeting with the chairpeople, inquire about contacting individual campaign managers/coordinators or candidates.
2. Contact all the candidates involved in the coming election (do not assume any information was transmitted from the chairperson). Consult with each candidate as to how the interns may be plugged into the campaign organization most advantageously.
3. When the interning has begun, send thank-you notes to those cooperating, and keep in contact to determine if any difficulties arise.
4. The most effective way to develop future successful interning experiences is to plan realistically with the students as to the times, places, and types of assignments that they will accept. (The worst mistake is to promise a candidate 20 volunteers for a Friday night rally before you speak to the interns. Should they have other plans, the teacher will have lost his or her credibility.)
5. Student participation is at the heart of the process in these contacts and planning procedures. The interns should *always* be involved. Thus in a visit to the political party chairperson, a student (preferably an elected student leader) should accompany the teacher.

With some careful planning, aggressive salesmanship, and a measure of good luck, the teacher and students should be able to arrange for a variety of worthwhile internship opportunities.

The following list indicates the various offices and agencies where the students at one IPLE New Jersey school (West Windsor-Plainsboro High School in Princeton Junction) interned during a recent school term. The school is located about 10 miles from the state capital.

New Jersey Common Cause, Trenton
West Windsor *Chronicle*, Princeton Junction
West Windsor Police Department, Princeton Junction
Tarp, Coates, East, Driggers, Attorneys-at-Law, Hightstown
Division of Women, New Jersey Department of Community Affairs, Trenton
Division of Civil Rights, New Jersey Department of Public Safety, Trenton
Mercer County Courthouse, Administrative Office, Trenton
Office of Citizen Complaints, New Jersey Department of the Public Advocate, Trenton
Division of Local Government, New Jersey Department of Community Affairs, Trenton
New Jersey Governor's Office, Trenton
New Jersey State Assembly (Majority and Minority Leadership Offices), Trenton
Mercer County Department of Correctional Institutions, Trenton

Student Legislative Training Center

A special type of internship opportunity available to New Jersey students is the Student Legislative Training Center, initiated and run entirely by IPLE students. Located in the state capital, the center was organized with the following objectives:

1. To instill in the students a better understanding of government and its agencies.
2. To give students a sense of responsibility, and to train them to become effective citizens.
3. To enable the students to learn how a bill becomes a law through active participation in the passage of bills.
4. To emphasize the immense power that the lobbyist wields.
5. To build self-confidence in the student through dealing with people.
6. To sharpen the students' abilities in research and speaking skills.
7. To provide the students with a better insight into politics and law.

Procedures for Establishing a Center

While the state capital—specifically an office at the Department of Education, Trenton—was selected as the most appropriate and convenient site in New Jersey, this type of activity could be conducted on a smaller scale at the county or local level, or even from a school room.

The following outline of the experience of IPLE students in New Jersey

can serve as a model for others to adopt or adapt in organizing such a training center:

1. Determine a site and arrange for an office to include a telephone, files, and writing space.
2. Select a student chairperson responsible for scheduling students and keeping the office running.
3. Gather materials – books, clippings, Legislative Index.
4. Notify legislators and professional lobbyists of the center's existence, and seek their cooperation in working with the students.
5. Notify participating schools and have each register the number of students interested in working and/or being trained at the center.

Activities in the Center

1. Conducting legislative tours of the capitol
2. Instructing students on the "how-tos" of researching legislation and lobbying.
3. Researching bills of interest – developing a fact sheet for use when meeting with legislators.
4. Drafting legislation when no bills are "in the hopper" on a particular subject of special interest.
5. Facilitating meetings with legislators from students' own districts, as well as other sponsors, key legislators, and aides.

During the past several years, student interest in the Legislative Training Center has been high. By using the facilities of the center and acquiring, in a practical real-life setting, the necessary skills to lobby effectively, students have a rewarding educational experience. They have seen some bills die in committee but have been responsible for getting others all the way to the governor's desk.

Released Time Considerations

The interning program and other field experiences which involve students in the political process require students, on a regular basis, to secure the permission of their other teachers to miss their classes. This process of granting permission for students to be absent from their classes often generates hostility among fellow teachers. Frictions which may occur can be reduced with established procedures and adherence to several simple suggestions:

1. Develop a uniform procedure for securing permission for absence from class. This procedure should make provisions for the following problems:
   - How often should any individual student miss a particular class?

- How are students to compensate for missed class time?
- How much advance notice should be given of an absence due to an interning assignment or trip?
- Under what circumstances may a student be temporarily or permanently barred from interning?

2. Develop a standard form including:
   - The nature of the interning experience.
   - The date and place of the assignment.
   - An opportunity for all the affected teachers to sign and thus grant their permission.
   - An opportunity for you to grant permission and thus control the interning experiences.
3. Stress with students the "human psychology" techniques of dealing with teachers, such as the difference between "I have to miss class on Tuesday. Can you tell me what we will be covering?" and "I missed class yesterday. Did we do anything important?"

See Boxes D, E and F for sample forms to handle released time.

Evaluation

For the teacher of a course where students not only participate in school, but out of school as well, evaluation of them may be the most difficult part. Many of the teachers of the IPLE curriculum have faced this problem and have developed three creative ways of solving it. One is the contract, an agreement between the teacher/coordinator and the student about the quantitative and qualitative requirements for each grade. The contract serves not only to evaluate, but also to organize and motivate as well. The second evaluation method is the critical incidents record, a quick, simple means for noting any learning experiences related to the curriculum that indicate student involvement, giving information to the teacher or any outside evaluator. The third method for evaluation is the internship evaluation form. This enables the internship supervisor to evaluate student performance and gives the student a way to evaluate the supervisor and the overall internship.

Contract Grading

Contract grading develops initiative and self-discipline, though not all students are ready to assume the responsibility for completing assignments. Extra initiatives by students distinguish the outstanding course from the average one. Suggesting dates helps students to work regularly on their contracts and keep up. Either they can:

1. complete a certain percentage of their contract by a specific date, for example:

30% by September 30
70% by October 30
100% by November 10

or

2. complete certain projects by specific dates, for example:
   a book report before September 30
   3 case studies before October 15
   5 public township meetings before October 30
   a paper on government before October 10
   an interning evaluation by November 10

Contracts can be used as the basis for evaluating all of the course requirements, including knowledge and experiential learning, or only the latter.

While the teacher might desire some consistency in competence for each grade, flexibility is essential. Since independence of thought, initiative, reliability, self-discipline, and involvement are among the implicit goals of the IPLE concept, the negotiation of a contract should foster these attributes in the student. Encourage students to add or substitute requirements, especially for the higher grades. Allow opportunities to renegotiate contracts. At any time during the course, students should be able to add extra creative experiences or projects to the contract.

The sample in Box G contains most of the elements of a good contract: specific requirements of quantity, and a possibility for renegotiation. It is also desirable to include specific requirements of quality for each grade as well as greater allowance for renegotiation.

One teacher, who has had considerable experience with a variety of contract arrangements, raises the following points for consideration:

- Contract work should not be everything required for class; it should be different from what takes place in the class.
- Contracts should ideally incorporate three levels: (1) what all students should do; (2) a wide variety of options to choose from; (3) room for individual creativity and initiative.
- Contracts should be specific in their expectations (e.g., not just "Write a paper on . . ." but describe length, type—position paper, research paper, etc.).
- Contracts should pay attention to pacing so that students can be assisted in meeting their goals (e.g., allowing time for students to resubmit projects if they are not satisfactory or successful the first time).
- Contracts should provide sufficient difference in the requirements for an A, a B, and a C.

- Teachers should be prepared to deal with the problems of enforcing the F option. (If a student contracts for an A and only completes the requirements for a B or C, does s/he get an F?)
- Contracts should include a renegotiation date—a point during the marking period when a student can re-contract for a higher or lower grade.

The contract should reflect a teacher's educational philosophy. It should be considered as only one of a number of options available to the teacher for student evaluation. The primary value of contract grading is in giving students the important experience of establishing realistic goals for themselves and in assuming the responsibility for meeting or failing to meet their self-selected objectives.

Critical Incident Records

Critical incident records, on the other hand, are records to substantiate completion of specific contract terms. Students are asked to record the date of a particular incident, the number of students involved, the person who set up the activity, its location, the people affected by the incident, and a brief description of it. The teacher should make several copies of the critical incident records available to each student and should periodically remind students to record incidents as they happen. The critical incident record can also serve as evidence of increased student involvement and thus generate community support for IPLE within the school.

The sample completed page of a critical incident record log in Box H is a composite of actual IPLE student records.

Evaluation of Internship Experiences

One of the more challenging aspects of evaluation in the IPLE program involves off-campus student internships. The teacher should visit each of the IPLE students on-the-job if possible, to observe and talk with the adult supervisor. However, the teacher must rely largely on the reactions of the supervisor and the student as well as on attendance records for evaluating the success and effectiveness of the interning experience. Two internship evaluation forms, one for the supervisor and one to be completed periodically by the student, have been developed for this purpose, copies of which are shown in Boxes I and J.

Implications for the Teacher

Whenever a new program varying from the norm enters a school, problems can develop. Experiential activities are quite different from the traditional social studies curriculum. Field trips are extensive. Simulation

games and role-playing are frequent. Guest speakers come into school on regular basis. Students work harder outside of class than in class; they are in and out of school, and miss classes or even whole days on occasion. This departure from the usual curriculum and this atypical activity can cause communication breakdowns.

These "new" activities and projects entail additional responsibilities for the teacher. Some faculty members protest that the teacher is allowed to do activities which they cannot; others resent the fact that the program takes students out of the classroom so much. Some traditional teachers object to the close relationship with the students which these programs foster. Most discouraging is the friction that may develop because of the praise and attention bestowed upon a successful teacher for his or her work. All these can develop into serious problems.

Public relations work may help prevent these problems. The Institute may be considered as a commodity that must be sold to the community to insure its success. Since participatory activities always generate publicity, it is best to exercise some control over what is said or written about the program.

Local Advisory Boards

Many IPLE teachers have found it helpful to establish an advisory board which sets general policy, provides resources, and supports the local Institute program. The board also provides invaluable public relations for the class. The following individuals might well serve on the mini-board:

- Local government official(s)—the mayor and/or a member of the town council.
- Local political officials—representatives of the two parties.
- Educational officials—a member of the school board or administration.
- Parent(s) of student(s).
- Student(s) in the class or other classes.
- Individual citizens or representatives of significant local interest groups concerned with political, governmental and legal education, such as an attorney from the local bar association, and/or a member of the League of Women Voters, the chamber of commerce, etc.
- A reporter for the local newspaper.

Mini-board meetings may convene monthly or bi-monthly to lay out the plans for units of study. Even if the board does not meet regularly, it still serves a useful function in legitimizing the program. As one teacher put it, midway through the second year, "My board still has not officially met, but the members are kept informed of what we're doing, and I know they

will be willing to go to bat for me and the students should any problems arise about IPLE in the school or community."

New Roles for the Teacher and Student

The role of the teacher in a community based political/legal education program is, of necessity, different from the role normally associated with a "traditional" social science teacher. An understanding of this change in roles is basic to an understanding of the Institute program. A successful project cannot possibly be implemented in a school using only an 8:30 A.M. to 3:00 P.M. schedule.

In the course of the IPLE curriculum, the teacher must play all of the following roles:

- Coordinator-facilitator
- Resource person
- Chauffeur-chaperone
- Parliamentarian
- Liaison between the administration, board of education, community, politicians, and business persons
- Critic-evaluator

Along with all the usual duties and responsibilities, the teacher is required to accept a host of additional, time-consuming responsibilities. For example, s/he must work with students after hours, must take more field trips, and must become involved in community activities that take time and attention. Students may need transportation to some events. The teacher has a more demanding classroom situation, and is responsible for the health and safety of students, long after other teachers have gone home. The activities which may engulf the teacher are limitless and often unpredictable. A teacher supervising a variety of student projects taking place concurrently must be a general advisor for each group, supplying information on people, places, and community resources. As a general facilitator, the teacher must be available to students needing help, and attempt to be sufficiently knowledgeable in enough areas to aid a variety of student projects simultaneously. The teacher need not be the resource but must be able to provide links to the resources in the community.

The student role is vastly different from that to which most students are accustomed, and the teacher's assistance in making these changes is vital. A student gains a greater understanding of the legal process by participating in it. In most cases, however, the teacher must be more than just a facilitator, because teen-aged students need considerable assistance in making the transition from passive students to active interns.

These ambitious efforts can seem overwhelming. However, cooperating community members can benefit by making a positive contribution to

young people's education. And especially rewarding is the increased enjoyment and better education for students and teachers which grow from community involvement.

BOX A

Position or Organization	Name	Address	Telephone
Governor			
Counsel for the Governor			
State Attorney General			
Leadership in the State Legislature			
State Senator plus legislative aide			
Executive Director, Republican State Committee			
State Chairman, Republican State Committee			
Executive Director, Democratic State Committee			
State Chairman, Democratic State Committee			
County Chairman Republican Committee			
County Chairman Democratic Committee			
Director, Elections Section Department of State			
Legislative Liaison Commissioner's Office Department of Education			
Director, Governmental Relations State Education Association			
Executive Director, State School Boards Association			
President, State Education Association			
Director, State Bar Association			
Director, State American Civil Liberties Union			

BOX A

Position or Organization	Name	Address	Telephone
President, State League of Women Voters			
Director, State Common Cause Office			
President or Executive Secretary Press Association			
President or Executive Secretary Broadcasters Association			
State Public Interest Research Group			

BOX B

New Jersey State Government Workshop
Resource Participants

A. The 19-Year Old Drinking Age
Ben Risoldi, President, N.J. Licensed Beverage Assoc., Inc.
Lee Laskin, New Jersey State Senator
Barry T. Parker, New Jersey State Senator

B. Land Use: Three New Jersey Issues
Cliff Daniels, Coordinator, Energy Education
Educational Improvement Center, South Jersey
Gary Patterson, Glassboro State College
Life Science Department
Lewis Joyce, IV, Cape May County Health Department

C. Energy and The State Plan
Ron Reisman, Executive Assistant to the Commissioner
New Jersey Department of Energy
Edward Linky, Administrator, Office of Planning and Policy Analysis
Gary Liss, Assistant Administrator, Office of Alternative Technology, N.J. Dept. of Energy
Frank Monachello, Education Coordinator, Office of Conservation, N.J. Dept. of Energy

D. Automobile Insurance
Steve DeMicco, Public Interest Research Group
Sharon Szabo, Consumer Analyst, N.J. Dept. of Insurance
Bernard T. Clothier, Secretary of Keystone Insurance Company

E. Casinos --- What's the Future
Joan Robinson Gross, Deputy Attorney General,
Division of Gaming Enforcement
New Jersey Department of Law and Public Safety
Rita Shade, Columnist, The Evening Bulletin

F. Education: Current Issues
Howard Sunshine, Supervisor of Program Development
Educational Improvement Center, South Jersey
Leon Colavita, Project Facilitator
State Department of Education, Task Force on Reducing School Violence and Vandalism

BOX C

Voter Education/Election Worksnop

THE ROLE OF THE MEDIA IN A CAMPAIGN

Loretta Brennan, Producer, New Jersey Public Television
Hendrix F. C. Neimann, Publisher, New Jersey Monthly Magazine

ELECTION ANALYSIS AND CAMPAIGN REPORTING

Robert Duncan, Producer, New Jersey Public Television
Robert Geary, Asbury Press

ELECTORAL POLLING

James J. McDonnell, IPLE teacher, Metuchen High School
Bobby Keers, Lisa Portney, IPLE students

THE IMPACT OF LAW ON ELECTION CAMPAIGNS

Senator Wayne Dumont, New Jersey
Lucy McKenzie, Executive Director, Common Cause
Lewis Thurston, Election Law Enforcement Commission

THE ROLE OF POLITICAL PARTIES

Nancy Schluter, Former Republican Committeeperson
Connie Woodruff, National Democratic Committeeperson

THE ROLE OF POLITICAL CONSULTANT

Shanin Specter, Staff Member, The Agency

THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONS IN VOTER EDUCATION

Bernard Allanson, Chamber of Commerce
Marie Curtis, League of Women Voters
Donna Mobley, Amalgamated Clothing & Textile Workers Union

BOX D

SAMPLE RELEASED TIME FORM

Date_____

_____ is participating in an internship this year with the _____. This program is in conjunction with the Legal and Political Experience course. Students assuming this responsibility understand that the following guidelines must be carried out.

1. Released time will be limited to two days per month.
2. All subject teachers should be notified at least two weeks in advance and offer their approval of the dates.
3. Released time should be flexible enough so that examinations and other necessary classroom activities can be accommodated.
4. Students should maintain a B average or achieve their maximum level in all other classes.
5. Students must take the initiative in asking for and making up all work missed while on released time.

Thank you for your understanding.

_____
Social Studies Supervisor

For the month of _____, the following dates are for released time.

Period	Subject	Teacher's Signature
1.	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____
6.	_____	_____

BOX E

PARENT PERMISSION FORM

Date_____

I hereby give _____
(first name) (last name)
permission to participate in the Internship program at _____ during the 19____ school year.
(Location of Internship)

I understand that the student will provide his/her own transportation to and from this assignment.

Signed_____
(parent or guardian)

Telephone_____

BOX F

RELEASE FORM
(for Police Ride-along Internship)

I, _____ do hereby release the City of Bowling Green, its agents and employees, from all claims whatsoever that might arise from any negligence of the City of Bowling Green, and agree to indemnify and save the City of Bowling Green harmless for any acts of omission or commission that the City of Bowling Green, its agents or employees or any other outside person might perform while I am participating as an educator seeking realistic on-the-job experience with the City of Bowling Green, Ohio, Police Division.

This release is being signed by me, wherein I expressly waive any acts of negligence of the City of Bowling Green, and waive any liability on the part of the City of Bowling for any of its acts of negligence of its employees or agents.

This release is being signed, realizing that I will be working under a department of the City of Bowling Green during a training session.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand this _____ _____ day of _____, 19____.

_____

WITNESSED:

_____

_____

BOX G

SAMPLE IPLE CONTRACT
1st Marking Period

For an "A"

1. Attain an "A" grade in completing an analysis of a candidate in Campaign '76.
2. Attend a gathering of political candidates and write a review of it.
3. Attend a meeting of the township committee and the board of education and summarize what happened.
4. Participate in three out-of-class political functions: registration drive, canvassing, leaflets, etc.
5. Complete satisfactorily all in-class assignments.
6. Maintain an up-to-date account of all internship experiences.

For a "B"

1. Attain a "B" grade in completing an analysis of a candidate in Campaign '76.
2. Attend a gathering of political candidates and write a review of it.
3. Attend a meeting of the township committee or the board of education and summarize what happened.
4. Participate in two out-of-class political activities.
5. Complete satisfactorily all in-class assignments.
6. Maintain an up-to-date account of all internship experiences.

For a "C"

1. Satisfactorily complete a written analysis of a candidate in Campaign '76.
2. Attend a gathering of political candidates and write a review of it.
3. Develop a written presentation on the functions of the township committee.
4. Participate in one out-of-class political activity.
5. Complete satisfactorily all in-class assignments.
6. Maintain an up-to-date account of all internship experiences.

I, _____
do hereby contract for a grade of _____ for the first marking period in IPLE. I fully understand the terms of the contract as outlined above and understand that failure to meet these terms will result in my receiving an "F" on my report card. I also understand that I will have the opportunity to renegotiate this contract once, and only once, prior to October 22, 1976.

_____
(Student Signature)

Date _____

_____
(Teacher Signature)

BOX H

SAMPLE STUDENT CRITICAL INCIDENT RECORD

NAME _____ SCHOOL _____

64

DATE	STUDENTS	INITIATOR	LOCATION	PEOPLE AFFECTED	INCIDENT	DESCRIPTION
9/18	3	Student Project	Brakely Park Apartments	38 residents of Brakely Park	Voter Registration	45% will register 40% no answer 7.5% registered 7.5% other Reemphasized things I know about the community. 38 more people registered to vote.
10/1	Class	Teacher	Rutgers University	Entire Institute	IPLE Campaign Workshop	Sen. Joe Biden spoke before the group, and then smaller sessions were held on canvassing and campaign techniques by qualified trainers. Good.
10/9	Me	Myself (for intern project)	Law office of Irving Vercloff, N. Brunswick	employees of law office	Internship planning (8 weeks)	Mr. Vercloff and Mr. Shepassor permitted me to intern at their office. I observed some cases with their clients. Will begin after election.

67

10/10	Me	My own	Trenton State House	Myself & Ted Yim	Spoke to Ted Yim—President of State Young Democrats—about organization of a Democrat drive in county.	
10/27	Greg Gordon and me	My own and class project	Central Elementary School	5th and 6th grade Classes	Mock Election	We helped 5th and 6th grades to hold their mock election. Worked on forming parties, helping them write speeches.
10/31	Myself	Myself	Brendan Byrne headquarters, N. Brunswick district	People in the district	Canvassing and office work	Canvassed an area in N. Brunswick for Brendan Byrne—distributed literature. Looked up telephone numbers at campaign headquarters.
11/6	Myself	Myself	District	Voters	Election Day Get-out-the-vote	Went door-to-door reminding people to vote. Stood near polls distributing literature. Wasted day—most people had already voted.
11/6	Some	Myself	Court House		Election returns	I just watched—atmosphere was similar to that of a football game.

BOX I

Sample Internship Evaluation Form
(student)

Agency:_____ Student:_____

Date:_____

Please indicate your response to the statements below concerning your internship circling a number on a scale as follows:

1 = Poor 2 = Fair 3 = Good 4 = Very Good
5 = Excellent

1. The attitude of the individual(s) with whom you are interning: 1 2 3 4 5
2. The likelihood of using the information and/or skills presented in this internship is: 1 2 3 4 5
3. I would characterize my participation today as: 1 2 3 4 5
4. To what extent do you feel you are benefiting by this experience? 1 2 3 4 5

Please answer as indicated (use additional paper if needed):

1. In what areas has your experience fulfilled your expectations?

2. In what area has your experience not fulfilled your expectations?

3. What was the best thing about your experience today?

4. What was the worst thing (if any) about your experience today?

5. Specifically, what did you learn today?

6. If you could change any one thing about your internship, what would it be?

BOX J

Sample Internship Evaluation Form
(supervisor)

Student: _____ Rater: _____

Date: _____ Department: _____

Please indicate your response to the statements below about the student listed above by circling a number along a scale of 1 to 5 (see scale below) which represents your feelings of the level of his (her) performance during this activity.

1 = Poor 2 = Fair 3 = Good 4 = Very Good 5 = Excellent

1. The student's ability to establish a working rapport with members of the department or agency was: 1 2 3 4 5
2. The student's ability to listen and respond appropriately was: 1 2 3 4 5
3. The student's use of unstructured time (independent work) was: 1 2 3 4 5
4. The ability of the student to perform assigned tasks was: 1 2 3 4 5
5. The punctuality, enthusiasm and cooperation shown by the student was: 1 2 3 4 5
6. What overall rating would you give this student? 1 2 3 4 5

Please comment (use additional sheets if necessary):

Please comment (use additional sheets if necessary):

1. Does the student appear to be benefiting from this experience?

2. What problems, if any, have developed? Explain.

3. What unique experiences has this student had?

4. Would you accept this student as an intern again?

5. Are you interested in having other students from our school as an intern?

6. What recommendations, if any, would you make regarding the improvement of the intern program?

Community Involvement: How and Why?

David T. Naylor

Involving the local community takes time, thought, and energy. Is it worth the effort? As director of the Cincinnati Center for Law-Related Education, a countywide center based at the University of Cincinnati, I have designed and conducted dozens of law-related teacher training programs that make extensive use of community persons, agencies, organizations, and institutions. In offering a law-related resource service through our center to area educators and schools, I have worked closely with teachers and administrators in planning and coordinating a wide variety of community involvement activities. These experiences have convinced me of the vital role that community involvement plays in helping law-related education programs attain their goals and in sustaining and broadening a support base for law-related education in the local community.

In this article I focus on essential attributes of broad-based community involvement in law-related education, and suggest some ways to make local community involvement work.

In the Classroom

Since most teachers and project directors have limited formal training in law, they most often use community resource persons as classroom presenters, supplementing and clarifying law-related issues and topics. Typically, the teacher invites a lawyer, judge, police officer, legislator, or other local resource person to visit his/her classroom to speak with students (i.e., elementary or secondary students in school-based programs, teachers and administrators in teacher training programs). The resource person is asked to clarify a particular issue or topic (e.g., search and seizure, capital punishment), role (e.g., judge, prosecutor), or process (e.g., how the grand jury

David T. Naylor is Executive Director of the Center for Law-Related Education at the University of Cincinnati. The address of the Center is 635 Pharmacy Building, College of Education, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio 45221. Its phone is (513) 475-3982.

functions, how voir dire is conducted). This usually results in, but is not limited to, a lecture or modified question-answer presentation.

Arranging for a classroom speaker typically requires little more than a telephone call and follow-up letter, costs no money, and necessitates little, if any, disruption in the regular school (or program) schedule. But success is not automatic. Care must be taken to address potential problems that may limit a resource person's use and effectiveness as a classroom presenter. Here, then, are some points we have found helpful both in enhancing the educational value of the resource person's presentation and in selecting and securing appropriate persons for this purpose.

Before inviting a resource person to meet with your students, be sure that there is a sound educational purpose for this experience. The topic that you wish the speaker to address should relate directly to your course of instruction and be specific enough to be dealt with in the time available. The resource person's visit should be timed to be of value when presented and relevant to the needs and interests of your students. Unless these basics are present, don't invite a resource person to your classroom. Purposeless presentations may retard or defeat your efforts to establish a viable community involvement component in your local law-related education program.

When inviting a resource person to your classroom, describe clearly the specific topic you wish him/her to address and make clear how the presentation is consistent with and an integral part of the instructional objectives of your course. Describe the interests and needs of your students. Contact a potential presenter far enough in advance to permit that person to arrange his/her schedule (we suggest two to three weeks), and check to make sure that the scheduled date does not coincide with an assembly, school trip, or some other deviation from the normal school schedule.

Student preparation is also necessary. Well in advance, inform students of who is coming, why, and what the person will be discussing. On the day of the presentation, introduce the speaker and remain in the room during the presentation. (Remaining in the room is not only common courtesy; it also permits you to help maintain classroom discipline, to hear what is being said, and to raise issues and stimulate questions in areas the speaker may have neglected.) After the guest leaves, engage the class in appropriate activities to maximize the value of this experience.

It needs to be stressed, however, that it is not always a simple task to identify the right community person for your needs and to get that person to come to the classroom. Personal acquaintances are likely to be limited, both in numbers and in range of expertise. Furthermore, repeated use of a small number of individuals can cause serious problems, as pointed out in

Law-Related Education in America: Guidelines for the Future (Chicago: American Bar Association, Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship, 1975): "[T]he problem of overlapping activities has arisen in localities where several projects attempt to utilize the same pool of volunteer attorneys, judges, and law enforcement officials. The volunteers quickly feel exploited and harassed, and often withdraw from participation" (p. 59). Thus, it is very important to establish a broad pool from which appropriate community resource persons can be drawn.

One way to broaden your pool of community resource persons is to contact the local bar association, local police agencies, state agencies, and other community-based organizations, which usually have established procedures for securing and providing guest presenters. Given a specific topic or task and date, these organizations and agencies will identify a specific individual or several individuals for you to contact, or will contact such persons themselves and make the necessary arrangements for you.

When you use this procedure, I recommend that you meet personally with the head of the respective agency or organization (e.g., bar association director and/or officers, police chief, presiding judge, government agency directors, court administrator, etc.) to explain your program and needs *before* making an initial request. It is also a good idea to meet with the person who will be responsible for making the actual arrangements. As you use presenters, maintain contact with the key people in these organizations and agencies and share results of your program with them. Take steps to meet or establish contact with as many of the presenters in the respective organizations as possible. Your enhanced rapport with them is likely to result in greater cooperation with and support for your program, success in obtaining high-quality resource persons, and reduction of possible misunderstandings. In short, it's important for you to get to know as many community resource persons as possible and for them to get to know you.

Using a Central Resource Service

Another way to broaden a community resource pool is to establish or, better yet, to affiliate with a central coordinating service such as that provided by the Cincinnati Center for Law-Related Education. The Cincinnati Center serves educators and community groups in Cincinnati and outlying suburbs – more than two dozen school systems in all. Given the frequency and variety of requests for presenters, we have sought to establish as broad a pool of potential community resource persons as possible.

A central coordinating service can enhance in-class use of community resource persons by working closely with both teachers and potential presenters. It the central agency also provides teacher training courses and work-

shops, many potential problems can be alleviated, for instruction in the use of community resources can be included in such programs. If not, the agency can still safeguard against the misuse of community resources by clarifying teacher requests. In either instance, by making repeated requests, specific teachers become well known to the central agency's staff, who can then offer additional assistance (e.g., audiovisual materials, suggestions for additional community experiences, special workshops, curriculum guidance, etc.) and meet the teachers' individual needs more effectively.

When one is seeking a presenter, it soon becomes clear that not all persons are experts on all topics identified with their particular occupation or profession. This is true especially of attorneys and police officers. Here is another reason for having as broad a pool as possible. Furthermore, this situation suggests the need for a system to identify presenter expertise.

At the Cincinnati Center, we use the form shown in Box A for attorneys in our pool. (We have used the form twice to survey the members of the Cincinnati Bar Association.) From the data obtained, we then establish a cross-reference category system. By periodically supplementing our pool of attorneys and updating the categories and persons identified with them, we maintain a useful, convenient system for identifying persons available to meet requests. A similar system is recommended for use in your program.

With a central coordinating service, teachers contact the center, and center personnel contact the appropriate resource person(s). Whenever possible, we contact potential presenters directly, by using the pool of names and category system we have developed. We make such direct requests to attorneys, prosecutors, judges, corrections officials, legislators, other government officials, and many police officers. In other cases, we make requests through established agency contact persons—for example, in ex-offender organizations, business corporations, and some police agencies. We make a determined effort to use as many of the persons in our pool as possible and to avoid using any one person more than twice a year, unless a person specifically requests to be involved more frequently. Using as many individuals in the pool as possible is also important for maintaining their interest and involvement. If persons indicate availability and are not called, their interest is likely to wane quickly. Hence, some reliable system of record keeping is essential.

When arrangements are confirmed, we send letters to both the teacher and the presenter, specifying details of the session. We also urge the teacher to telephone the presenter to discuss the arrangements more specifically.

It is important to note that, like individual teachers making arrangements on their own, center personnel need to get to know as many community resource persons as possible, and resource persons need to become familiar

BOX A

INFORMATION SHEET, CINCINNATI CENTER FOR LAW-RELATED EDUCATION

Areas of Program Involvement (Please indicate one or more)

____ Make a substantive law presentation in a teacher training session

____ Have direct classroom contact and discussion with students

____ Assist teachers with substantive law planning and questions

Areas of Substantive Law Interest or Expertise (Please indicate one or more)

___ First Amendment Freedoms

___ Criminal Law and Due Process (4th, 5th, 6th, 8th, 14th Amendments)

___ Law Enforcement/Police in an Urban Setting

___ Corrections Programs

___ Legal Assistance/Legal Aid

___ Court/Trial Structure and Procedures

___ Nature of Law/Philosophy

___ Domestic Relations

___ Law and the Environment

___ Privacy

___ Laws Involving Minors

___ Juvenile Court/Procedures

___ Student Rights and Responsibilities

___ Torts

___ Contracts

___ Landlord-Tenant Laws

___ Property

___ Consumer Law

___ Other (please specify)

_____

Name: _____

Address: _____

Telephone: _____

Geographic Area Preferred (if any): _____

with center personnel. Whenever possible, we try to meet personally with individuals in our pool prior to their participation in our program.

By following these procedures, we feel that we are able to provide teachers with qualified persons interested in making presentations on the topics requested, and safeguard against the overuse or underuse of specific individuals. We are also able to provide community resource persons with meaningful experiences that minimize potential difficulties and encourage their continued involvement in and support for law-related education programs.

Evaluation and Training

A central coordinating service utilizing the "broker model" necessarily deals in greater volume than a single teacher or school. Experiences gained from the large number of community persons and teachers involved permits a central coordinating agency to implement an evaluation system and use it to monitor its program successfully. Individual teachers are likely to lack such perspective, their evaluation system being limited to trial and error (or success) with specific presenters in their own classrooms.

One of the most important lessons we have learned is that, even when all of the procedures suggested above are followed, even the most prestigious presenter may give a very disappointing lecture or modified question-answer presentation. Lectures may go on too long, with too little time for questions or discussion. Question-and-answer sessions may turn out to be lectures in disguise or be dominated by only a few students. Presenters may have difficulty relating to and communicating with different audiences. Thus, selecting the "right" community person for the designated purpose and audience is the key to a successful program.

Training sessions can be helpful in this regard. While an evaluation system can identify problems, training sessions can help alleviate and overcome them. Both teachers and presenters can benefit greatly from such sessions, especially those in which alternatives to the lecture and question-answer methods are explored. For example, a police officer may be asked to observe and critique students role-playing situations in a law-related simulation, such as "Police Patrol." He/she may even be asked to take part in the simulation, especially in a nonpolice role. This format permits the officer to present key points more naturally and more effectively, as part of the discussion following the simulation.

Mock trials offer additional ways to utilize community resource persons. Invite a prosecutor and a defense attorney to work with small groups of students preparing a mock trial. Have the prosecutor and defense attorney serve as observers and/or advisors to students while a mock trial is being conducted, and then involve them in the follow-up activities. If students are inexperienced, invite a team of three lawyers to assume the role of prosecutor, defense attorney, and judge, with students assuming the other roles. (Incidentally, the mock trial provides an excellent opportunity for involving parents and other members of the community as jurors, thus adding another dimension to community involvement and providing another base for community support.)

These ideas, of course, represent only a few of the alternatives to the traditional use of community persons as classroom presenters. By taking advantage of such alternatives, you are likely to increase a resource per-

son's effectiveness and provide him/her with a more personally satisfying experience. But expect to encounter some reluctance when you suggest alternatives, for change is likely to be resisted. The rationale for using alternative methods must be clearly explained and procedures clearly described. In other words, some training is necessary, for both teachers and presenters.

Formal training sessions in which both teachers and resource persons participate are highly desirable but often difficult to arrange. Sessions for teachers can be included as part of law-related teacher training courses, such as those conducted regularly by the Cincinnati Center, or as part of special in-service workshops. Sessions for resource persons are much more difficult to set up, given their schedules and professional responsibilities. A several-hour afternoon or evening session, perhaps preceded or followed by a luncheon or supper, is a workable structure for this purpose.

If formal training sessions cannot be arranged, I recommend informal training sessions. These can occur in face-to-face contact, especially following a classroom presentation, in a telephone conversation with follow-up letter specifying procedures and instructional approaches, or in a booklet or similar publication containing suggestions for teachers and/or presenters. Whatever approach you decide to take, it is important that you make teachers and presenters aware of the nature and goals of your law-related education program and encourage them to take advantage of the wide variety of ways in which community resource persons can contribute.

Going into the Community

Field experiences offer other opportunities for community involvement in law-related education programs. Law-related instructional programs must not be confined to the school grounds. Students need opportunities to observe and become involved in the community.

Field trips to state and federal courts to observe arraignments, preliminary hearings, civil and criminal trials, and sentence hearings are staple features of many law-related programs. So, too, are tours of police facilities, jails, and other correctional institutions. Less common are visits to legislatures and law offices, police ride-alongs (usually limited to adults), and "shadow" or intern programs. Some programs also arrange for students to serve as jurors in mock trials conducted in area law schools by third-year law students.

Like classroom presentations, these kinds of experiences should be timely, well coordinated with an ongoing instructional program, well planned logistically and educationally, and relevant to student interests and needs.

Students need adequate preparation beforehand and sufficient time afterward to discuss what they have observed/experienced.

Unless ingredients such as these are present, field experiences are likely to have little educational value. As Paul Freund, distinguished professor of law at Harvard University, has observed: "Too often relevance is pursued in the schools without intellectual discipline. It becomes the relevance of visiting the courts as if they were visits to the zoo. Interesting, relevant, absorbing, and yet, without significance." ("Law in the Schools: Goals and Methods," *Social Education* [May 1973], p. 363.) This point is emphasized in *Law-Related Education in America: Guidelines for the Future*, which asserts that law-related field experiences "are a valuable addition to a carefully conceived curriculum of law studies, when students are well prepared for the visits and have the opportunity to discuss them afterwards, but they are of little value when they stand alone. Like Law Day observances, isolated tours may teach students little about the nature and function of law, and may have no long-term impact" (p. 31).

Community field experiences, however, are somewhat more difficult to arrange and control than classroom presentations. They are likely to involve transportation costs (the school bus is the most common method used) and to disrupt the normal school schedule, especially in junior and senior high schools. They can also be disappointing despite the most meticulous planning, since scheduled trials can be postponed at the last minute or interrupted by long recesses or complicated motions. But community field experiences are also likely to provide students with perspectives unavailable through any other means. Hence, field experiences, especially at the courts, are well worth the time and effort.

We have found that visits to the courts to observe initial appearances (arraignments) and preliminary hearings are valuable, especially for elementary students, and far less likely to be postponed than trials. These proceedings permit students to observe critical elements of our criminal justice system within a time frame that is well suited to student interests and needs, as well as school and bus schedules. With proper planning, students can arrive in time to receive a brief orientation from court personnel (we use a probation officer). During recess, students can meet with the presiding judge to discuss what they have observed. Properly conducted follow-up sessions can maximize the value of this experience for students when they return to their classrooms.

Visits to the courts to observe trials are most valuable for secondary students and adults. But trials can be complex and usually require one to three full days for completion. Students will probably be able to observe

only part of a trial, especially if the case involves a felony or a civil matter with damages in excess of $10,000. This means that special preparations must be taken by the teacher.

When you are planning to observe a trial, we recommend that you contact the court administrator or prosecutor's office to ascertain the schedule for pending trials, select one (or several for the same day, should the one you select be postponed or settled), and then coordinate your visit with appropriate court personnel. Remember that trials are open to the public, that reserved seating is not always possible, and that courtroom seating is frequently limited. Advise students of proper courtroom behavior, and invite a number of parents to accompany you as chaperons. On the day before your visit, get in touch with your court contact and get briefed on the case (e.g., issues, progress already made, scheduled testimony). Contact the presiding judge and confirm arrangements for him/her to meet with your class during recesses. Plan for alternatives should the trial be delayed or postponed.

In-class discussion following your visit to the courts is extremely important, especially if the class has observed only a portion of the trial. For example, one Cincinnati-area teacher accompanied a group of students to an Ohio common pleas court and observed a three-hour segment of an ongoing trial. Afterward, students expressed strong sympathies with the defendant and strong criticism of the prosecutor, whom they had observed cross-examining the defendant during the entire three-hour period. This gave the teacher an excellent opportunity to engage his students in an examination of the roles of and strategies employed by prosecutors and defense attorneys. Subsequently, he invited the prosecutor and defense attorney to class to discuss their roles and to address student concerns. Without this type of follow-up, the value of the court observation would have been severely limited or even counter-productive.

The courts offer additional possibilities for strengthening law-related programs beyond the traditional ones discussed above. Visits with court reporters, court administrators, jury commissioners (and perhaps a viewing of an instructional film for potential jurors), probation officers, bailiffs, and law clerks offer additional opportunities, including career exploration. They provide perspectives different from in-class presentations.

On-site visits are likely to increase the number of community persons you are able to involve in your program, since such visits disrupt a resource person's schedule less than a visit to your classroom. For example, judges are limited in number and have heavy dockets; a meeting in a judge's chambers might permit students to encounter a judge who would not have time to make a classroom visit, and might give students insight into the

judge's role that would not be possible in a classroom discussion. Furthermore, by increasing your program's visibility, field experiences generate greater public awareness of and support for your program.

Like in-class presentations, law-related field experiences in the local community can be arranged by individual teachers, but many of the same limitations apply. I recommend use of a central coordinating group. In either case, however, the cultivation of personal relationships with community persons is very important.

Law Day Programs

In-class presentation and field experience are the two most common types of community involvement in law-related education programs at the local level. Special one-day community programs, such as Law Day, are a third type of community involvement. Standing alone, however, one-day programs are not an adequate community involvement component. Regard them instead as ways to enrich and extend the types of activities previously described and as a means to supplement an ongoing instructional program. For maximum value, special one-day community programs should be coordinated with classroom instruction.

Special one-day programs are excellent vehicles for increasing community awareness of the nature and scope of your law-related program. You should feature sessions that involve students and teachers and highlight their activities—for example, students conducting a mock trial or engaging in mock trial competition; picture displays of classroom scenes and field experiences; videotape presentations that show key elements of elementary, secondary, and/or teacher training courses; displays of student work, teacher-prepared materials, and commercially or project-produced law-related instructional materials. Post names and/or pictures of community persons who have participated in your program during the past year or two. Give awards to both educators and community persons for exemplary efforts in furthering law-related education. Have a session in which teachers and community persons can discuss issues of mutual concern.

By becoming involved in the planning for as well as the activities of Law Day and similar one-day programs, teachers, administrators, and project leaders can establish personal ties with key community persons and organizations. The perspectives you bring to community planning groups will be welcomed. The potential you have to influence the kinds of activities planned and to help program planners realize the need for ongoing involvement in law-related instructional programs is great. I urge you to take advantage of such opportunities.

The Community Advisory Board and Local Funding

The solid foundation upon which in-class visits, field-based experiences, and special programs rest is the law-related community advisory board. Whatever the scope of your project, I strongly recommend that you establish an advisory board. It should meet periodically to advise, guide, and support your efforts. When made up of individuals representing key constituencies in the local community (e.g., bar associations, judges, police, business leaders, teachers, administrators), an advisory board can play a significant role in strengthening your program. Not only can it provide you with important perspectives for decision making, but it can broaden your pool of community resource contacts and your base of community support. But an effective advisory board requires interested and supportive people who are willing to serve. Use care when selecting community representatives for your advisory board.

With these elements—a broad pool of resource persons available to visit classrooms, a range and frequent use of field-based experiences in the community, participation in planning and carrying out special law-related programs in the community, and an active, supportive advisory board—you will have created a strong community involvement component of your law-related program. Financial support from community sources is then more logical and more likely. Local community groups are much more willing to provide financial assistance when they are will informed about your program and involved in it in signficant ways.

Local assistance is often needed to supply matching funds for grants from government or private groups. Sources for this type of funding include bar associations, local foundations, and private industries. Local funding is also needed to finance specific aspects of your law-related education program, such as transportation costs for field experiences, scholarships for educators participating in teacher training courses, and the purchase of books and other instructional materials. These costs can be shared by specific individuals and groups—individual lawyers providing several teachers with tuition scholarships; bar auxiliary or other local service organizations meeting transportation costs; the chamber of commerce assuming the cost of special audiovisual materials; etc.

If you have involved a significant number of persons and groups in your program and publicized their activities as well as your whole program, your chances for securing financial support are good. We have found it best to request funding for a stated purpose, rather than to ask for a sum, the purpose of which is unspecified. For example, you might request $2,500 to cover transportation costs for 500 students, or $203 to provide three half-tuition scholarships for three local elementary school teachers.

By informing the community of what you are doing and by involving the community in meaningful ways in your program, you can strengthen, enrich, and rally support for your program. With careful planning, purposeful use of community resources, and proper evaluation, you can form the crucial network needed for a strong law-related education program and for the support and perpetuation of that program. It's an exciting challenge and definitely worth the effort.

State Networks for Community Resources

Margaret Richards

You'd think the hard work and tremendous energy needed to run a local community involvement project would stymie the organization of a statewide model. Who is that indefatigable? How is it possible to foster commitment on that scale? The answer, of course, is that it isn't done alone. A director of a local law-related education program—one who works with one school system or in one region—can attend to details which the state coordinator must trust to other people and organizations.

One-Person Clearinghouse

The state coordinator must be flexible, be ingenious about a wide range of resources, and must rely on local people for quality control over community involvement projects. The coordinator has to be a facilitator, an organizer of people, a source for a huge variety of information, and with all that, something of a politician, a diplomat and a deliverer of services.

By definition, a state coordinator has wider contacts and larger resources than a local director. The opportunities for cross-fertilization are much greater with a statewide project's access to more school systems than a local or regional one. That is obvious. But, at the policy-making level too, a state coordinator can affect related programs. The coordinator may serve on various task forces which make recommendations to the commissioner of education, to the state board, or to the state legislature. This service extends the influence of the coordinator, and the idea of law-related education through community involvement, into the decision-making or policy-making levels of state government.

A coordinator can feel pulled in one hundred directions if community involvement projects are being developed in several places. Yet the state

Margaret Richards is Coordinator of the Connecticut Consortium for Law-Related Education. The address of the Consortium is State Department of Education, Box 2219, Hartford, Connecticut 06115. The phone is (203) 566-4825.

coordinator must avoid overcommitments in time and attention to one school, one district, or even one terrific pilot program. An effective coordinator has to be selective about how much direct assistance to give: It's easy to devote a disproportionate amount of time to special teachers or community people.

Time and energies are precious assets. So, too, are the creative ideas of local people. Allowing these ingenuities free-play is sometimes a way to save the coordinator and to cultivate new resource people with fresh perspectives. The state coordinator can keep a sharp sense of the overall goals of the program and allow local people to plan adaptations for their own needs.

Networks for Impact

Networks and organizational piggybacks are vital to the state coordinator, even though s/he may sometimes need to work directly with a school, a district, or even with individual teachers. A state program can assist individual teachers or schools, as local programs do, but the most important contributions are to identify and disseminate information about many different ways of using community involvement learning, to find and cultivate the greatest possible variety of community resource people, to organize training and support services, and finally, to set up special statewide "happenings" that will excite people about the benefits of community involvement in law-related education. In short, generating ideas and resources, organizing, informing, and then recognizing local leadership have to be among the major priorities of a state coordinator.

Effective action on these priorities can be accomplished through networks of community resource people, teachers and administrators who are skilled at teaching about law through community participation experience. The more strong local networks supporting a state program, the better.

Networks that work efficiently together will greatly enhance each other's effectiveness in the schools and in the community. Each will know how to use the resources of the others to benefit the students. Together they can work on problems that none could tackle alone – the big ones like juvenile delinquency prevention, for example, or the individual ones like the child in a "family with service needs" (a legal category now used in Connecticut for former status offenders). These networks will also provide a core of trained people in a school or district who can serve as trainers of other teachers, administrators and community people. They can set up their own workshops and training sessions, serving as models of the team approach to learning about the law through community participation. Many times the local network knows student needs, local issues and resources

best, and can take over for the state coordinator. Once local networks begin to do that the LRE organization in the state can become self-perpetuating and self-renewing. From this solid base, the networks can reach into less receptive areas.

Community involvement education depends, number one, on the caliber of the resource people involved, so let's get down to specifics about cultivating "the best" on a statewide basis. How can they be identified and organized to make reality-based learning work with teachers and students? A coordinator can pick and choose elements for a particular state program, but s/he should at least look at the potential benefits and pitfalls of each one.

An Umbrella Group

The first element to consider is a statewide "umbrella" organization. The Missouri Bar Association's Advisory Committee on Citizenship Education is one good example. Established in 1970, it has a decade of experience, helpful to any statewide group. Contact them at the Missouri Bar, 326 Monroe, Jefferson City, Missouri 65101. Another good model is the Connecticut Consortium for Law-Related Education, Inc., which was organized in 1976. (See author's identification of this article for the Consortium's address.) Memberships of both groups include educators, legal professionals, and interested citizens.

Of the two, the Connecticut Consortium has a larger membership. In addition to lawyers from the Connecticut Bar, the legal profession branch of the Consortium includes legislators, members of the League of Women Voters, state and local police and several Connecticut superior court judges. The Connecticut Civil Liberties Union is actively involved, as are people from several agencies concerned with juvenile issues. The educators' segment of the membership includes representatives of the Connecticut Associations of Secondary Schools and of Elementary Schools, of the State Department of Education, and of both public and private universities and two of the three law schools in the state (Yale and U. Conn). Principals, guidance counselors and classroom teachers have also joined the Consortium. The citizen part of the Consortium includes people concerned with how students learn about the law, as well as representatives from several organizations with citizenship training and law-related education programs, such as the State Federation of Women's Clubs.

The Consortium has a board of directors which meets monthly from September to June. The board reflects the tri-partite character of the organization. At present, for example, there are directors representing the bar association, the Connecticut Justice Commission, state and local

police, the State Department of Education, both teacher organizations (CEA and AFT-AFL/CIO), the University of Connecticut, the University of Hartford and the State Federation of Women's Clubs. The directors individually and collectively provide the state program with a sounding board for plans and project ideas; a source of advice and suggestions about policies, procedures and decisions; leadership for steering committees (the state mock trial competition committee, for example); and assistance with fundraising. Unlike the Missouri Bar's Advisory Committee, the Consortium is incorporated as a nonprofit tax-exempt organization so it can raise and disperse its own funds. As the public action arm of the state program, it brings resources to law-related education from a spectrum of organizations and individuals that are critically important to law-related education in the state.

With the sampling of membership groups above, you can imagine the contacts and assistance they provide for the outreach of the state program. One obvious service they give is the use of their mailing lists. If you are a coordinator, don't be shy about piggybacking with these. How else can you so quickly and efficiently locate names and addresses of local bar association members, or local police chiefs, or LWV members than through their lists? If a request comes in from a school for the help of a community resource person, start with these lists. The lists enable mailings to a very large and influential cross-section of people. Information about activities, projects or opportunities for involvement can be easily disseminated.

Some of the best resource people, and some of the most innovative projects, can come from members of the "umbrella organization." While most of the people in an organization like the Consortium, or the Missouri Advisory Committee, cannot give a great deal of time, they are often willing to help with a special one-time activity. Convinced of the importance of law-related education, and well aware of the expertise they can contribute, they will go all-out when an unusual opportunity comes up. For instance, a judge, excited about the need for a court visitation program, can join with educational experts and school contacts in the Consortium for a running start.

Combinations like this also make involvement of community people tremendously effective in curriculum develoment. In one Hartford school, a teacher and a class of sixth graders wanted to create a visual presentation about what happens in juvenile court. With a few phone calls to Consortium members, a juvenile court judge, a probation officer and an A-V specialist teamed up with the teacher and the students to produce a set of slides and a script to go with it. The slide show is now being shown all over the state. Positive results like that juvenile court program confirm the need for a network like the Connecticut Consortium.

State Government Support

A second crucial element for a state-based program is the active support of the State Department of Education. The best "umbrella" organization in the world won't go anywhere with community involvement in law-related education if its members can't get into the schools. Once sold on law-related education and community involvement, a state board of education can institutionalize the concept. Curriculum guides, or departmental plans of professional development can be issued statewide and ease accepttance on the local level.

Support from the department works best when the commitment comes from the top. A commissioner who is a true believer in community involvement in education and in "hands on" learning experiences for all grades of students is a great boon for a state coordinator. The commissioner has the power, the visibility, the support and the money to make a state program really effective. If the commissioner can influence the State Board of Education to mandate law-related education and community-based learning, so much the better. This action in Massachusetts, for example, fostered a unique program through which students serve as members of local school committees and of the state board of education.

If you lack that kind of maximum, active support from the educational leadership in your state, don't despair. Just the commissioner's endorsement for your program can open the door for support. For example, schools will cooperate when the commissioner gives priority to community-involved LRE. Further, the legal professionals will be much more interested in helping when their contribution is publicly endorsed. In Missouri a statement of support by the commissioner of education enabled the coordinator of the Bar Association Advisory Committee to set up a series of meetings at which local bar presidents, school superintendents, and principals jointly made plans for lawyers to help with law education classes in several pilot schools. The local planners at those initial meetings, together with the state bar, created a model for lawyer-teacher teams in the classroom.

A supportive state department of education can do other things to further community involvement. Clerical staff and mechanical assistance can boost your program with help on mass mailings and typing, as well as making copy machines and WATS lines available. Don't underestimate the importance of these services to a state program where so much depends on keeping in touch with so many people.

Furthermore, because the people in the state department of education are in the schools and/or working with many different agencies and groups in the community all the time, they know which school is doing what, and

who is available for some community participation project. If the coordinator's background is secondary social studies, for example, how better to get in touch with the science teachers for environmental law projects than through the state education department's science consultant? Or to explore business law programs, wouldn't a contact in the Bureau of Business and Vocational Education be useful? Or to find teachers in the elementary schools interested in LRE, might not the elementary programs consultant be of help? When that group of professionals is convinced of the benefits of community involvement in law-related education, the coordinator's potential is multiplied a hundredfold.

There is another advantage to being part of the state bureaucracy. Numerous opportunities exist for cultivating interest and resources outside the department of education. The department of consumer affairs is a "natural," for example, and so is the department of environmental protection. In Connecticut, both of these have active education divisions which can be tapped for community projects in the schools. Of course, their services are usually available to any state program, whether or not sponsored by the department of education, but the "insider" versus the "outsider" dynamic favors a coordinator who is a part of the bureaucracy.

Bottom Up

A third element for the successful cultivation of community involvement in law-related education works not from the top down, like the "umbrella" organization and the state department of education, but from the bottom up. A survey of law-related education programs in the schools in your state, for example, will amaze you with all that is going on, especially if your questionnaire asks who in the community works with the teacher, with the students, or, preferably, with both. Invite brief descriptions of community participation projects too. Chances are you will accumulate a surprisingly long list of local community people previously unknown to you, who are doing all kinds of exciting, imaginative activities to help young people understand how the law works right in their own town or neighborhood.

When the first survey of law-related education in Connecticut was done in 1976, the results showed that 60 schools, mostly at the secondary level, had law-related programs, many of them with a community involvement component. A list of 37 additional resource people and organizations, both in the state and outside, was combined with the survey results by the Consortium and the state department of education and published as *A Guide To Law-Related Education in Connecticut*. The booklet has been an invaluable tool. In 1979, the survey of the schools was updated, revealing nearly

300 K-12 law-related education units, courses or projects in progress. Literally hundreds of local resource people who are helping with these were identified. Such surveys give the best evidence about the progress of law-related education in the state.

ILC for Resource People

Names and project descriptions can be fed into a file in the coordinator's office that will grow and grow as all this information about resource people accrues. But the lists just can't sit there. The coordinator of a state program ought to nurture these ready, willing and able experts in the community who want to be involved with students.

Spreading the word about what these resource people can do helps activate projects on the local level. If you can afford it, generate your own law-related education newsletter, telling who is available to do what to help teachers. The more specific your information, the better: Tell the kind of expertise offered by your resource people—where they are available, where they prefer to work, and their preferred grade levels and subject areas. Also give thumbnail descriptions of precisely how they can help with a class or a community project.

If you don't have your own newsletter, or even if you do, ask the organizations with whom you are working to include some of your information in their newsletters. People in the State Department of Education also send out bulletins and "items of interest" in which you can piggyback notices. Each of these goes to different target groups, and you can distribute your news widely with brief articles via other people's mailings and your own.

Another excellent way to channel information about resource people is to help a school district do its own survey and put the results into a manual for the teachers. The guide should list specifics about skilled people in the area who are available to work with students, directly or indirectly. A concise and inexpensively duplicated manual can be updated easily.

A variation on the manual is a packet containing informational brochures and statements from many agencies and organizations involved in law- and justice-related activities. In Utah, the packets were sent to local school districts to encourage use of the multiple resources for learning offered by such groups as the League of Women Voters, United Way agencies, the courts, the bar, the police associations, the Junior League, and many others.

Now that you've passed the word, and your resource people are getting calls, you can pass around the kudos. Use every opportunity to give recognition, bouquets and applause to these dedicated people who take time out from their professional responsibilities to tell young people about what they are doing. The publicity that they receive is also a splendid way

to tell of the productive, creative things schools are doing in this time of cynicism about education.

Training is Crucial

Certainly cultivating the resource people in your state is vital to ongoing community involvement in LRE. What about keeping these people and the educators they work with up-to-date about learning and legal matters? Successful community involvement education results from both spirited volunteers who can coordinate with the schools and good training to direct and focus energies of the community and the teaching professionals.

Training for Outside Resource People

Extensive courses in community participation learning are virtually out of the question for most volunteers. Therefore, training is likely to be loosely structured and informal. Contact is a must in some form though, before a resource person works with the students. There are several effective ways to arrange for quick basic training.

The resource person must be aware of what is expected of him or her. The teacher can best provide this information, though the state coordinator can help with some suggestions. A list of do's and don'ts and the necessary background about the class can be communicated by phone or in a letter. The visitor should know what the class is working on, what has been done and what the intended direction of class study is. S/he should have ideas for several different activities, and understand how these will fit into the total scheme of a teacher's plans. Joint planning will increase confidence and allow for greater effectiveness.

It is often possible to piggyback with existing training programs. Most towns have police youth officers, for example, assigned to help in the schools. A police course on working with juveniles should welcome sessions by the state coordinator on law-related simulations, games and other learning activities. Youth officers could benefit greatly from this sort of presentation, better preparing them for their visits to the schools.

For more extensive community involvement projects, such as the Street Law model which uses law school students in classes, several sessions on teaching techniques, action learning strategies, and basic classroom management can save many a talented law scholar from disaster with a group of 12-year-olds. Usually three or four training workshops build up the necessary sensitivity and confidence; and they make the law school students familiar with effective alternatives to that usual "great lecture" in which a class and a guest are on different wavelengths.

Attorneys in the lawyer-in-the-classroom program meet several times with teachers who plan to use them. The lawyers give the teachers some

substantive information about legal topics to be studied, and the teachers give the lawyers some strategies and techniques for use in the classroom. This interchange on learning about the law greatly expands and enriches what the students ultimately gain from the project.

Intervals between the working sessions can be very valuable for testing out ideas and methods. Long range plans for projects can be modified when the resource people and the teachers get back together after trying things out in the classroom.

In designing more formal training sessions, don't forget organizations outside your state which might be able to help: The National Street Law Institute (207 Delsea Drive, R.D.4, Box 205, Sewell, New Jersey), the Institute for Political and Legal Education (605 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.), the Constitutional Rights Foundation (1510 Cotner Avenue, Los Angeles) or the Maryland Law-Related Education Program (University of Maryland, 5401 Williams Ave., Baltimore) all have strong community involvement components in their curriculum materials and their training models. Some funding is even available to disseminate information. In-service sessions and conferences can be tremendously enriched with workshop leaders and consultants from these groups.

Statewide training action covers a number of bases for volunteer resource people as well as teachers.

Regional and state conferences can highlight particularly effective programs and can reinforce in-service training. Bringing together the networks of teachers, administrators and resource people can, however, take a great deal of time to set up. These gatherings also tend to have a limited impact. Which of us hasn't gone home from a day-long conference all excited about what we saw or heard there, and then been so snowed under by everyday chores that the excitement fades and the new ideas get tucked away to wait for that never-never day when we have more time. But the benefits of a good conference are worth the work, when complemented by year-round in-service courses and workshops.

Training for Teachers

The cross-fertilization which occurs in these broad-based workshops is a magnificent stimulus. Certainly the best assistance community resource people can find in a school, however, is a teacher trained to use them effectively, backed up by a supportive administration.

Professional development for teachers, therefore, has to be a major concern for a state LRE coordinator. Though it is easier to plan for extensive, formal training for teachers than for community resource people, both law-related education and community participation learning are sadly

neglected areas of teacher-training. Law, law-related education and community involvement activities could be accredited components of both pre-service and in-service programs. But they are not. In most states there is no training in law required of people who are going into classroom teaching – not even school law, juvenile law or constitutional law. Nor are such courses a part of most teacher certification requirements. Our tasks would be much easier if colleges of education would recognize the importance of learning about the law and the benefits of using community resources in the classrooms.

A state coordinator who wants to prepare teachers to use community involvement experiences in their LRE classes has not only to design the courses but also, often, to teach them. If local colleges of eduction will accept the coordinator as an adjunct faculty member, teachers taking the course will receive credit, which they want. Luckily, in Connecticut, the Summer Institute for Legal Literacy has been accredited by both the University of Hartford and the University of Connecticut, so, as yet, we have not had to devise other incentives.

A summer institute needs to devote equal time to substantive law, community-based experiences for the teachers themselves, and activities and curricula that use community involvement effectively. In planning such a training course, arrange for a variety of resource people and provide plenty of practical "how to" tips. Teachers need the community experiences themselves because of their generally limited notions about what really happens in courts, police stations, lawyers' offices and consumer complaint bureaus. Talking with legal professionals can help teachers understand what their students can learn from this sort of experience.

Pre-service and most in-service training teaches teachers to be the "sage on the stage." Community involvement strategies place them in a different role. They become "the guide on the side," which is not easy and not for every teacher. Once exposed to the value of having students learn from many different people, however, most teachers become "true believers."

In Connecticut, as a follow-up to the summer institute, we are experimenting with another kind of training – a practicum in law-related education and community involvement. The course carries three graduate credits. The two major objectives are to give participants an extended "hands on" experience in a justice-related agency and to train those involved to be resource people for their own school or district.

Internships in the courts, in the department of consumer protection, in offices of a probation officer or an attorney or a police officer or a legislator, will offer many of the same kinds of learning that teachers can give their students in community involvement projects.

As resource people for their own schools, they can consult about policies, programs and procedures in justice-related agencies, and can plan for the best use of these by the school, whether for community involvement projects or for counseling and referrals for students in need of help.

An intensive summer institute, or a single semester course like the practicum, is great for introducing people to law-related education and community involvement. Wherever possible, that training experience needs to be followed up by a year-round program of in-service workshops, individual and collective conferences, and more field experiences. The organization of these, too, is the responsibility of a state coordinator, and much of their appeal and effectiveness depends on the imagination brought to planning them.

A very effective approach is to arrange a set of workshops in different locations around the state. Teachers who participate should select the topics according to their class plans—consumer law, constitutional issues, courts and judicial procedures, civil law, criminal law, police and juveniles.

The team teaching format is a must for each session. A lawyer, a police officer, a judge or a legislator can deliver substantive information and answer legal questions. Teachers need facts, and time to talk about legal issues with practitioners in the field. These sessions also identify legal professionals who are willing to teach classes or help students with community-based projects. The teachers also share their ideas about strategies and materials with each other in those workshops, while receiving new materials and more information from the educator of the team.

Training for School Administrators

Another group whose support is crucial for successful community involvement education is the school administrators. Unfortunately, formalized, structured training about rationales for using community resources and how to set up effective programs are no more a part of courses or the certificate requirements for administrators than they are for teachers. How much this is needed! The principal of a school, or a superintendent has the power to make or break community involvement programs. Administrators are not apt to object to people coming into the schools, but a coordinator faces a multitude of objections when it comes to taking students out for community-based experiences—the cost of transportation, the difficulty in obtaining school buses, the loss of supervision by school personnel, the disruption of schedules, and the problems of accountability, evaluation, and insurance.

A state coordinator can ease this situation indirectly. An endorsement of the state program by the department of education can make a big impression on most administrators. It's possible to give sessions on law-related

education, community involvement learning, and the accompanying practical problems in education courses for administrators. Piggybacking in these courses will raise awareness about the value of community experiences for young people. Even one session can plant the idea in the minds of people who are truly in positions to help.

Another way to get to the administrators is through their state associations. Getting on the agenda to present your ideas spreads the word. Inviting them to come to in-service programs, conferences, workshops and special events will help too. Your law-related education newsletter—if a busy administrator takes time to read it—can speak on your behalf.

Administrators are highly trained poeple with long experience in school work. Including them in the planning for local and state projects can benefit them and the plans. Their perspectives can be useful and, ultimately, their go-ahead is necessary if a community involvement component in any subject area is to work.

Skills and Services

Training teachers, community resource people and administrators, and giving them plenty of appreciation and recognition, go a long way toward institutionalizing community involvement in law-related education, but even the best trained, well-supported networks need backing up by an array of skills, services and materials. What are some of these?

Take skills, for example. Classroom teachers, school administrators and a state coordinator must combine realistic expectations, flexibility, ingenuity, firmness and clear communications to work successfully with resource people. Everybody has to start with the realization that involvement with students by people like lawyers and police and probation officers is a "side line" for them. Helping students is rewarding, but it's not their main job. Their preparation time is very limited. They are not always sensitive to the need for a backup person in case they can't make it to a class at the last minute. Previsit contacts with the teacher, a concise set of guidelines, and some activities devised by the teacher, can help avert totally unplanned presentations.

Sometimes the purposes of a classroom visit or a field experience are clear to all concerned. But when the community project becomes more complicated, as with an internship, or more controversial, as with help on a political campaign, then a mutual understanding of purposes has to be arrived at through considerable diplomatic discussion and negotiation. Good communication skills should become especially important when dealing with single issue advocacy groups that want to indoctrinate students, or with a sponsor of an internship who uses students as unpaid, unskilled labor.

Each teacher has to take the major responsibility for working through these problems on a day-by-day basis. Their training for using community involvement learning experiences should include ways to handle these situations. But a state coordinator can help a lot by being sensitive to difficult situations that arise, and by clueing in the teacher, the school administrator and the community people involved. A coordinator can patiently and persistently focus everyone's attention on what the students need from the community experience, thereby minimizing conflicts which exist. At another level, the coordinator can maintain good communications with the leadership of the community organization doing a project, so that goals of the program are well understood. A lot can be accomplished talking—sharing information, clarifying objectives and negotiating cross-purposes. A lot can be lost through bad experiences or disintegrating communications.

Resource Materials

Support services are as important as the skillful handling of people. A state program can maintain up-to-date collections of materials for use by teachers, administrators and community people. If these are located in several convenient libraries or resource centers around the state, they are much more likely to be used than if they are in a single location, even a central one. Each collection should have materials dealing with substantive law which are written for lay people. Other valuable items are samples of cases and curriculum materials, such as the Law In Action Series, *Street Law*, or the Living Law Series. Syllabi of courses developed by teachers, or sequential curriculum plans being used in a school or district are very helpful, as are games, simulation models and audio-visual aids.

The Connecticut collections are at the University of Connecticut Law School library in Hartford, at Southern Connecticut State College library in New Haven, and at the Curriculum Resources Center at Central Connecticut State College in New Britain. In addition, each of the six Regional Teacher Resource Centers has a collection of law-related audio-visual materials which may be borrowed by schools subscribing to their service. Keeping the collections up-to-date is costly—paid for largely by the three libraries and the resource centers and supplementary help from Consortium funds.

The Missouri Bar Association has built up a library of films, tapes and filmstrips which is located at the Bar's headquarters in Jefferson City. Circulation is handled by mail. The materials are available to all Missouri schools for just the mailing costs of returning the borrowed items. The catalog of the collection is updated annually and its use is aided by an in-service course for teachers run by the Bar and the University of Missouri.

Integrating two networks—teachers in law-related education and the community people helping them—is both a challenge and a special opportunity for the coordinator. Together these groups can create curriculum materials, among other valuable contributions. Indeed, that is what happened in Missouri. The Bar Association and the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education set up a state curriculum committee of lawyers and elementary and secondary teachers who represented different disciplines—social studies, home economics, science, art and language arts.

The result of this successful joining of networks was a law-oriented curriculum guide for grades K-12. The manual is a compendium of hundreds of activities built around nine basic legal concepts. The process of writing it formed a core group of legal and educational talents which has given leadership to all aspects of law-related and community involvement education. Joint planning of local projects and local training are crucial first steps to encourage unity between two groups. A sustained effort at curriculum creation goes several giant steps beyond, as we have seen.

In Connecticut the same process of uniting networks to create curriculum has produced some tremendously innovative and effective materials on the local level. The Honorable Seymour L. Hendel of the Connecticut Superior Court and teachers from New London High School developed a court visitation program, for example In 1980 this successful program went statewide. A packet of curriculum materials to prepare students for what they will see and hear in the courts has been developed by a group of teachers, attorneys and judges. Police have teamed up with teachers and students have joined with the State Department of Consumer Protection to write other manuals. These local products are now disseminated statewide through the coordinator's office.

For any curriculum-writing project, a state coordinator can supply leadership, but must step back once a group is cohesive and working well. The coordinator can hasten this cohesion by arranging places and dates to meet, assigning writing tasks to individuals, setting up timetables, editing, and offering secretarial assistance. The coordinator may be called upon for educational expertise and ideas, too, but once s/he has stimulated the thinking of others s/he must allow the group to take its own directions. It is poor practice for a coordinator to dominate a curriculum writing group. The effective coordinator can contribute flexibility, imagination, experience, and support to the creative efforts of others.

Funding

A state coordinator can assist with finding money and in-kind services, both locally and statewide, though law-related courses themselves are not all that expensive to start up or to expand. Most community people give

their services free; PTAs and school activity fees pay for many field experience costs, such as transportation; and library funds help purchase special books.

For all manner of special projects, however, the coordinator needs to be ready with information about possible local, state or national sources of money. Contacts with the funding sources, a "track record," and proposal-writing skills are invaluable. To know something about sources of money which might be tapped in the state and to know how to write a simple proposal is one thing. Quite another thing is to engage in writing major proposals yourself.

The coordinator's particular talents, preferences and contacts must dictate priorities. Raising big money can be a high priority—but then other people must train teachers, work on curriculum materials, develop community resources, and organize the major "happenings" in the state.

The "pro's" in the state department of education and in the "umbrella" group can advise and assist, if the coordination gives other activities more attention instead. Our experience has shown that organizations and individuals in our Consortium are so excited by community involvement in law-related education that they are willing to contribute both funds and in-kind services when these are needed for special projects and events. They see it as part of their own community involvement, and with that kind of help a coordinator can't lose!

Funding for the state program itself is in a different category. The kind of organizations committed to law-related education can determine the financial stability of a program and where funds will be channeled. If a major foundation or corporation takes interest, such as Aetna Life and Casualty in Connecticut, or the Danforth Foundation in Missouri, many possibilities are open. Aetna helps with many individual school projects and the Danforth Foundation gives major grants to special programs for citizenship education.

If the major funding for the state program comes from the state department of education or the state bar association, the coordinator's job is an easier one. The salary of the coordinator, and funds for supplies, basic services, and some program activities, such as the newsletter, can come from either the organizational budget or from federal funds.

Happenings

An ambitious way to pull together all the component parts of an effective state program—the resource people, the teachers and administrators, the "umbrella" organization, the models for training, financing, and curriculum, the out-of-state consultants, and especially the students—is through an annual "happening." Possibilities are limited only by time,

money, and energies. Law Day programs coordinated with the bar association are traditional and very useful events. A state or regional conference on law-related education or community resources for citizenship education, as we had in Connecticut in 1978 and 1979, and law careers fairs offer many benefits and rewards. But for a truly dramatic demonstration of what students learn through law-related education and community involvement, it's hard to beat either the mock trial competition or the student convention on constitutional issues in the schools, which we held in Connecticut during 1980.

Either of these can stretch the resources of a state program and the stamina of a coordinator to the nth degree. Planning for them and collecting ideas, money, people and materials require an unbelievable chunk of a year. All through the months of preparation the coordinator has to live with the feeling that something could go terribly wrong, and the whole event could be an enormous flop. But—and here is the reward of having supportive school and community networks that operate creatively together—the anxiety and the work-load can be shared.

In Connecticut, the Consortium provided the organizing and coordinating center for the state mock trial competition. The chairperson of the steering committee was both a director of the Consortium and a member of the young lawyers section of the Bar Association. The young lawyers section provided nearly 20 attorney-coaches for the trial teams, and covered the costs of mailings, materials and prizes. Educational expertise for the project came from the state coordinator and from a group of teachers who had experience with mock trials in their law-related education classes. The State Department of Education lent its facilities for an all-day training session for the teachers and the attorney-coaches, and donated many in-kind services such as duplicating and mailing. As for the courtrooms—the court administrators helped arrange for these. A policeman and member of the Consortium, who belongs to a sheriffs' association, persuaded that organization to pay for custodial help.

The judges' association helped us find several judges who willingly agreed to preside at the trials. Since the trials were primarily intended to give the students knowledge about law and court processes and to develop their public speaking and advocacy skills, the judges were asked not only to give a verdict on the facts of the case but also to rate the students on their performance. Most of them went far beyond giving decisions, and spent time after each trial reviewing the whole experience with the students.

Out-of-state resource people contributed to the project, too, with a training conference by the National Street Law Institute, and a model set of materials sent by the coordinator of the New Mexico Mock Trial Competition.

While all this was going on, the students likewise were very busy. With their teachers and attorney-coaches, they spent eight to ten weeks studying, researching, developing arguments, working out statements, questions and cross-examinations, and practicing. Their intensive efforts were aided by the generous contributions of money, time and expertise of their teachers and the community resource people.

A student convention on constitutional issues in the schools (Law Goes To School Day) was a second effort, born of a citizen education session in a "Critical Issues" symposium sponsored by the State Department of Education. The Citizens Advisory Council on Safe Schools and the State Board of Education supported student development of a code of rights and responsibilities. The Consortium agreed to sponsor the convention funded by the Connecticut Justice Commission and the Connecticut Bar Association. The speaker of the Connecticut House of Representatives and the president of the state senate agreed to allow the students to use the state capitol for their convention.

A graduate student at the University of Connecticut helped the coordinator write pilot curriculum materials on the four issues the students considered at the convention: due process in a code of rights and responsibilities; free speech and free press in the schools; search and seizure and the role of police in schools; and sex equity. Interested students used these materials in their law-related education classes to study case and statute law related to each issue. They engaged in a variety of community participation projects to examine each problem in depth. The end result was a set of recommendations and guidelines for model school codes which student delegates brought to the convention.

At the convention, a panel of resource people—lawyers, police, legislators, principals, members of boards of education—helped them with the discussion and decision-making sessions as they acted upon the recommendations and guidelines. Out-of-state resource people helped at this point also. Joan Schuman, director of the Massachusetts Bureau of Student Services, and four of the students in the Massachusetts Students-In-Decision-Making Program came to the convention to direct discussions and participate in training sessions. Once the students reached a consensus on the recommendations and guidelines, they took these to their schools, to their local boards of education, to the State Board of Education, and to the Advisory Committee on Juvenile Standards of the Connecticut Justice Commission for negotiation and implementation.

These two activities just described—the mock trial competition and the student convention on constitutional issues in the schools—are products of a total meshing of school and community resource networks. A mock trial

can make many legal concepts tangible, and allow students the experience of expressing what they have learned to their peers as well as to legal professionals. The preparation of a code of student rights and responsibilities enables them to share fully in public decision making as this affects their schools. Building that kind of effective citizen participation is what community involvement education is all about.

100

Who's Done It and How?

101

High School Students Can "Court" Judges

Judge Marvin R. Halbert

"School days, school days, dear old Golden Rule days; Reading and 'riting and 'rithmetic. . . ." This tune stressing the three "R's" may have been accurate years ago in describing the subjects taught in our schools, but today a fourth "R" must be added—RIGHTS. These rights, increasingly familiar to students, cover criminal and juvenile rights, landlord/tenant rights, equal protection rights and consumer rights, just to name a few.

Philadelphia's leadership in using the courts and city government to teach rights may help you set up a similar program. Our City Hall houses the majority of the city's judicial, executive and legislative facilities, allowing for a variety of educational opportunities. As a judge, I will emphasize the courts, but many other government functions can be explored within City Hall, too. Our school system's unique program has had overwhelmingly positive results, yet the costs have been minimal and mechanics of the program very simple. This program is the direct result of the efforts of Marcia Oleve Halbert, my wife, an experienced teacher. She currently serves as the liaison teacher, the coordinator who implements the program within City Hall. With a centralized office to plan and coordinate visits by school children to City Hall, she is able to arrange times and accommodations with various governmental departments. If a program such as this were operated by government or court employees, discontinuity and impermanence could present problems. Mrs. Halbert can advise teachers what pre-visit instruction would be helpful to students and can relate far better to other teachers than a government employee could. The success of this program in Philadelphia is largely due to the ability of the liaison

Marvin R. Halbert is a judge serving on the Court of Common Pleas of Philadelphia County. For more information about the liaison teacher program, contact Marsha Halbert, Room 111, City Hall, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The phone is (215) MU 6-2840, extension 2841.

teacher to understand and deal with the problems of her teacher colleagues.

Plug for Planning

City Hall can be a teaching facility. Since most students become eligible to vote before graduating from high school, teachers must actively prepare pupils for citizen roles with a structured and coordinated program. Of course, many cities permit visits by students outside of the classroom, but merely encouraging teachers to take their classes on occasional field trips does not allow the students to fully experience and appreciate the workings of a city and its government. It is a waste of time and resources to visit City Hall or a courtroom once a year without prior preparation and planning.

First, teachers must be alerted to the existence of the program. We prepared a brochure, reproduced in Box A. Annually, we send it to department heads in every junior, middle and senior high school in the city.

In setting up our program it was apparent that teachers, as well, were woefully misinformed on the nuts-and-bolts operation of city government. So, Mrs. Halbert conducts an in-service course for teachers. Fifteen two-hour weekly sessions are held in the offices of the various government branches. Following a brief discussion by the executive (e.g., mayor, district attorney, city controller, president of city council, etc.), a "no holds barred" question-and-answer period takes place. The course has been exceedingly well received and promises to become a permanent fixture. Law-related education must be directed toward teachers as well as toward students.

Before a class visits City Hall, the teacher must prepare the students for the visit. They will then know what to look for or what to ask. The liaison teacher can supply materials once the class has been scheduled. For example, if the visit is to a criminal courtroom, the liaison teacher should send a confirmation date, a glossary of terms used in the courtroom, a schematic of the courts, as well as a description of a case, like homicide, from arrest through trial. (See the handouts on court procedures following Julie van Camp's article.) Before the appointed day, the liaison teacher will contact the available judges to make certain that a class can be accommodated.

Now that the preliminaries are taken care of, what happens during the actual visit? When the class arrives in City Hall, the president judge of the court, the court administrator, or a bar member can greet the students and give an initial briefing and introduction to the court system. These arrangements help avoid well-intended but inexperienced guides. Also, take care not to expose the students to just one view. The class can then go to the courtroom with an accompanying note to the judge. See Box B for an example.

You can ask the judge to place the class as close to the front of the court-

BOX A

. . . . Have your class come to CITY HALL. . . .

- Observe an actual criminal trial and meet with the Judge, District Attorney, and Defense Counsel.
- Attend a City Council meeting and speak with members of Council.
- Meet with political party leaders and discuss "Practical Politics."
- Question Probation Officers: "Does Probation Really Work?"
- Talk to Jury Selection Officials to find out if the jury system is the best method for arriving at the truth.
- Witness a session of Juvenile Court. (Seniors Only)
- Meet in City Council Caucus Room for a mock caucus.
- See a voting machine demonstration, and register your eighteen-year-olds to vote.
- Hear and see a demonstration of these topics presented by the City Planning and Art Commissions:

  "Philadelphia as It Was, Is, and Will Be."
  "City Hall: Its Art and Architecture."

- Listen to a discussion by the Commission on Human Relations: "How to live with your neighbors harmoniously."
- Watch hearings on topics such as Zoning, Fire and Building Code violations and Weights and Measures.

or

. . . . Have CITY HALL come to your class.

Speakers Available from:

- Board of Judges
- District Attorney's Office
- Voluntary Defender's Association
- Philadelphia Bar Association
- Police Department
- Fire Department

On-Site Visitations Available at:

- Water Treatment Plants
- Department of Public Health
  - Air Management Service
  - Board of Health Meetings
  - Air Pollution Control Board
  - Mental Health and Mental Retardation Advisory Board
- Traffic Court
- Department of Public Welfare
  - House of Correction
  - Detention Center
  - Holmesburg Prison
  - Riverview Home for the Aged
  - Stenton Child Care Center
  - Franklin Village
- Others

BOX B

Your Honor:

This is a class of _____ grade students from the _____ School, situated at _____. The teacher with them is _____.

The teacher and students have respectfully asked if you could please do the following so as to make the proceedings more meaningful to them:

1. Right at the outset, will you please briefly tell them what the case is about and how far it has progressed before they came in? If it is not convenient to do this in your courtroom, perhaps you can do so in your robing room.

2. The teacher will advise your court personnel 15 minutes before the class must leave. Will you then please take a brief recess to answer their questions and discuss the cases?

3. If there is an amplification system in your courtroom, will you please use it so they can all hear? The closer they can sit to your bench and the witness stand the better.

Thank you,

(Mrs. Marvin K.) Marcia Halbert
Liaison Teacher, Phila. Public Schools

Room 111, City Hall
MU-6-2840

room as possible. Students can hear all the proceedings, and the judge, upon leaving the bench during breaks in the trial, can easily discuss court happenings with a class seated in the front. When feasible, the judge can interrupt the trial when the class first enters and explain the case currently on trial and the court personnel.

Practically all the judges who accept classes in their courtrooms will hold a question-and-answer period before the class leaves. Defense attorneys and assistant prosecutors often take part in the discussions as well. This program is frequently more effective in courtrooms where judges try cases without juries, especially since the students can sit in the jury box and conduct their own "vote" on questions of guilt and innocence after a trial is completed and a verdict rendered.

Response to Philadelphia's Program

The response to this program has been a very positive one. Most requests have been to attend a criminal court session. The interest in criminal trials is paralleled by requests to observe the city council meetings, especially

when some controversial matter is being considered. We've found it a good idea to advise the council person from a school's district so that he or she can address the visiting class.

Each year since our program's inception in 1975, the number of students participating has dramatically increased. Thousands of letters from students and teachers illustrate the benefits of the program. The most common comments contained in these letters can be summarized as follows:

- The criminal trial is not the same thing as "Perry Mason" or "Kaz" . . . but is actually more interesting and exciting.
- Contrary to reports in the media, judges and lawyers work hard, and do excellent jobs.
- The imposition of a jail sentence or placing of handcuffs on a defendant after a sentence has been rendered is a deterrent to students.
- Students learn that judges are human after all and that defendants do indeed get a "fair shake" when it comes time for trial and/or sentencing.
- Invariably, students always want to return to the courtroom . . . as observers.
- Many students have expressed the desire to enter law or a related field after a court visit.
- No mock trial or classroom experience can ever take the place of an actual courtroom visit as a true learning experience.
- And finally, and foremost, a new respect for our judicial system and confidence in it is evolving because of the personal visitation to the courtroom.

The reaction of the judges and the government officials to this program has also been quite positive. Having one person coordinate takes the administrative burden off the courts, the judges, and the other city officials, though the most difficult and important part of the program remains for them—teaching. My colleagues on the bench and I sincerely believe that we are making a significant contribution, and it is a genuine learning experience for us too.

We were fortunate in Philadelphia. A concerned judiciary threw its doors wide open to all students. The legislative and executive branches followed suit. Perhaps the dropping of the voting age to 18 was a critical factor. Regardless of the underlying reason, it soon became apparent that city government could not be effectively taught in the schoolroom alone.

Perhaps your city government is not so receptive to students, or your local officials are satisfied with the status quo. In such cases you must do a lot of "stroking." Make no mistake about it—many judges rule by divine

guidance. Just ask them, they'll tell you so. Those who have been so "anointed" will require special wooing to have them assume the dual role of teacher as well as jurist. It may not be easy but it can be done; it must be done! The organized bar can be helpful in prodding a reluctant member of the judiciary.

Why Use a Liaison Teacher?

The person in charge must be able to establish long range goals and develop a lasting relationship with teachers. Persons in city government are frequently the victims of the vagaries of the ballot box. Aside from the problem of lack of continuity, persons in government almost by necessity have some political bias and tend to be less objective. It is grossly unfair to students to have such considerations affect the coordinator.

Besides, there are many times when the coordinator will actually have to teach. Cases have an almost guaranteed pattern of being delayed by side-bar conferences, when the attorneys and judge confer at the bench. The liaison teacher cannot permit a class to just sit and wait during these protracted delays. The coordinator must immediately arrange for the class to go to another courtroom or listen to a backup resource person (e.g., an outstanding attorney, district attorney, defense counsel, police officer, detective, or narcotics officer). If this is not possible, the coordinator should take over the class, calling on past experience with students to develop rapport. Frequently the coordinator can capture the attention of the class by presenting a hypothetical case and letting them vote and discuss what the appropriate sentence should be.

The expertise of the liaison teacher is essential for problems which can arise during court visits. Many times classes come in with students who lack some degree of emotional stability. Others may have physical disabilities, and some may have had contact with the juvenile court system. Sometimes students who become bored react in a fashion that is distracting to a judge. A trained coordinator can then be a trouble-shooter.

If there is one constant in the operation of a criminal court, it is the lack of constancy. No matter how hard we try, it is impossible to be sure that a trial will start when it is scheduled. Witnesses and defendants and lawyers and judges have a way of being late, getting sick. Frequently, breakdowns occur in the trial list, and classes have to be rerouted to other courtrooms by the liaison teacher. A note to the class teacher will smooth the snags in traffic. A sample is in Box C.

Convincing the Board

Those who seek school board approval for classrooms in the courts should try to get leaders of the judiciary to indicate their willingness and

BOX C

To the Visiting Teacher:

If for any reason, there is a breakdown in the list of cases in the courtroom you are visiting ... do not panic or leave the building! Please, immediately, call or come and see me at my office, below. I will arrange for you to visit an alternative courtroom or participate in another program. If I am not in my office, please wait there. I will return shortly!!

(Mrs. Marvin R.) Marcia Halbert

Room 711, City Hall Mu-6-2840

receptiveness to such a program. Phone calls from the president judge and administrative judge can be very helpful.

In Philadelphia, the school board was only required to make a very modest expenditure of funds. No additional salary was required since Mrs. Halbert was already a salaried school employee. She does her own typing and does not require a secretary. The president judge made available to her a small office on the ground floor of City Hall quite close to the entrance. (This location cuts down on unnecessary use of elevators when large numbers of students come in. Mrs. Halbert gathers them there and can more readily arrange the distribution and routing of classes.) The only added expense for the school board is a small rental fee for a phone answering service that is indispensable when the coordinator is required to move around the large six story City Hall. The cost of the telephone itself is absorbed by the Philadelphia judiciary.

What arguments did we use to convince our school board? We pointed out that the financially troubled schools have long neglected one of the most abundant, inexpensive and vital educational resources available—City Hall itself, the hub of our city government's activity.

Our objectives, as contained in the original proposal, were to help students:

1. Gain knowledge of the judicial system through courtroom visits and lectures, in order to equip them to deal with the realities of government.
2. Learn about possible careers in government, law, city planning, and other related fields.
3. Become aware of the roles of those connected with the courts and governmental agencies through direct interviews and observations.
4. Gain skill in critical reading through comparisons of actual events with versions as reported in the media.

Our program has addressed these aims and bestowed upon its participants the ability to function in this complex society and to contribute to that society in meaningful ways. Hopefully our experience will encourage other cities, courts and school systems throughout the country to create programs of their own.

Court-Based Programs: A Guide for the Schools

Julie Van Camp

If you want to learn how to cook, you need more than a cookbook. You need a kitchen. If you want to learn about the court system you need more than a textbook. You need a courthouse. Courts are open to the public. They don't charge admission and they offer an informative and realistic way to teach about our third branch of government. As a meeting place for teacher training programs, mock trials or class observation, the court itself is an ideal classroom.

Judge Halbert's article describes a Philadelphia program that was organized by the school system to use the courts. The courts themselves can initiate educational activities with a similar outcome. These court-based law-related education programs offer students and teachers the opportunity to learn about the law and the legal system while interacting with the various practitioners in the system – judges, prosecutors, defense counselors, clerk-magistrates, court officers, plaintiffs, defendants, probation officers. People who work in the district court know the day-to-day function of the court. It is this expertise that is so valuable to teachers and students, for personal contacts can demystify the judicial system and help develop a realistic attitude toward the law.

A recent Massachusetts survey of the 69 district court presiding justices showed that judges felt that respect for the law and the judicial system has deteriorated and that involvement with local schools is one way of combating this negative attitude among students. William M. Powers, former president of the Pennsylvania Bar Association, expands on this sentiment: "We hear and read much that condemns our young people, their presumed disinterest in the law, or worse, their alienation from it. I suggest that disinterest or alienation is merely symptomatic of a lack of understanding which is exasperating. We are the beneficiaries of this great

Julie Van Camp is Court Services Coordinator, Student Law-Related Education, for the State of Massachusetts. Contact her at 209 Essex Street, Salem, Massachusetts 01970. The phone is (617) 745–9010.

system of law, this epic creation of western man, and somehow we have been largely unable to tell its story to our youth." The judicial survey further revealed that judges feel that good public relations and a concern for the reputation of the legal system are strong arguments for the courts taking an active role in student law-related education.

District courts or community courts, as they are often called, are excellent resources for teachers and students involved in law-related education. These courts are regional. They either encompass broad geographic areas serving all the people in a number of communities, or they are located in large urban areas. Regardless of the population density of a district court's jurisdiction, teachers and students in that area ought to be familiar with its purpose and function. The court facility can provide a focal point, a meeting place, for teachers and students from different school systems, public, private and parochial.

Troubleshooting and Goalsetting

In theory, few judges would say that helping students and teachers to better understand the law and the legal system is an inappropriate activity for courts. However, such activities can pose problems for some courts. When you are developing a program involving the courts, keep these potential problem areas in mind. According to a judicial survey, to which all the Massachusetts district courts responded, the major concerns are:

1. Do we have enough resources, personnel, money, time and space?
2. Can student court visits be scheduled without disrupting court procedures?
3. What are the attitudes of schools and the community toward such an effort?
4. Is there cooperation with other agencies?

When you set out to develop a court-based program, identify the needs of the schools and the courts and design your program activities accordingly. The presiding justice should play a strong supportive role in whatever program the court and the school systems design. In this way all persons involved in the effort feel that there is commitment from the top, from the person responsible for the administration of the court.

It's helpful to remember that court involvement assists teachers *and* students, although educational support for teachers is incorporated with the program for students. In attempting to demystify your court system, you might consider the following learning objectives for students as you work through the planning and assessment process.

1. An understanding of what law is and why society needs to be governed by laws.

2. A respect for the law.
3. An awareness of your state court system, including criminal, civil, juvenile, small claims and magistrate's hearings.
4. A respect for people and property.
5. An understanding of due process and how it works in the court.

Whatever program is designed through your court and your local school system, overall goals and objectives should be established as guides in developing specific student activities and utilizing the curriculum materials. Goals and objectives are also useful in evaluating a program. Did your program meet its goals and objectives? If not, why not?

Your court-based program, whether it serves teachers, students, or both, should not require special funding. What *is* required is volunteer support – the willingness of court personnel to give their time and expertise to teachers and students needing substantive legal information. In turn, the schools need to give teachers release time to attend court-based training sessions and to provide curriculum materials for classroom use. Schools should also provide bus transportation for students to court.

Your court-based program should not be overly ambitious. Tackle only what can be adequately and effectively handled, with program policies to govern the number of students to visit court at one time, the number of visits per school during the year, and the number of court and court-related people who can become involved in your program. Assess your court's resources in terms of personnel, space and time. Teachers will understand the limits of these resources, and programs can be developed to fit within these limits.

Determine your allied resources in the community such as interested volunteers, police officers, correctional officers, criminal justice agencies and organizations, and local attorneys. The challenge of the court coordinator is to effectively utilize these support resources to plan and implement a program.

Choosing a Coordinator

What sort of person can fill the job of coordinator? There are a number of individuals in any district court who can run student and teacher education programs. The presiding justice must look at existing personnel and determine which of these people would be most able to coordinate an educational effort.

Court staff who serve as program coordinators in addition to their other duties, should have some experience working with students. Their substantive knowledge of the law and the court process is critical, but their effectiveness as program coordinators is enhanced if they personally relate to

the educational, behavioral and maturity levels of the students. We have found that many probation officers are former teachers; in fact, so are many judges and attorneys.

The program coordinator links the court and the schools. The coordinator schedules class visits, arranges orientation and follow-up sessions, schedules speakers during the class visits to court, develops and distributes student orientation materials, and in general maintains the program's smooth operation. If the court conducts annual or on-going training sessions for teachers, the coordinator is responsible for the administrative and program activities of these sessions. (The law education seminar described further on in this article requires extensive program coordinator responsibility.)

If court personnel are too involved in their court work to assume major organizational roles in the court-based education program, there is no reason the program coordinator can't be a volunteer. This individual must have contacts within the court, however. S/he would need to be someone who knows the court system well and had the respect of all court departments within the particular district court. In the broadest sense, each court participant in any student education program is a volunteer. When judges speak with students, when probation officers address student concerns, or when attorneys answer teacher's questions, they are responding voluntarily, giving of their time and expertise. However, organized court student education programs should never overlook the value of community volunteers as program coordinators and staff members.

Depending on the size of the court-based program, the program coordinator who is either on the court payroll or a volunteer may want to recruit and train other volunteers. Volunteers are often professionalized—treated as part of the staff. The only difference is their "pay" is not in the form of a check, but rather in the form of growth through training and exposure, and satisfaction through making a worthwhile contribution to the court's program.

Herta Loeser, codirector of the Civic Center and Clearinghouse in Boston, in her book *Women, Work and Volunteering*, has defined the "volunteer professional" in the following way:

> Volunteer professional is a relatively new term. It gives expression to the idea that, except for being unpaid, volunteers are workers who are employed, trained, supervised, promoted, dismissed and given references as are any other paid staff members. Just as job descriptions and a clear statement of the terms of employment should be the norm for paid staff, so should they be available to unpaid staff—for volunteers, be they part- or full-time. Written job specifications eliminate fuzzy thinking and gray areas of responsibility in division of

labor and also help to ease the threat of conflict between paid professional staff members and volunteers. . . .

Using Volunteers

If you choose to involve community volunteers, first clearly define the jobs for which volunteers are needed, including the amount of time required. Outline specific educational or experiential qualifications. People with backgrounds in teaching or law, with some exposure to program administration, would be good candidates. Then advertise through your local Voluntary Action Center or other community resources for volunteers. (Eleanor Barnard's article in this book mentions a number of other sources for volunteer help.) Conduct interviews with those individuals who apply. Pick the most qualified.

Retired attorneys or substitute teachers are excellent volunteers, as are spouses of attorneys and court personnel. These people could work with students under the supervision of the program coordinator and have specific on-going tasks, rather than fill one-time slots.

Volunteers can serve as liaisons between the court and a particular school, helping with classroom orientations and scheduling. Volunteers can continue to update court resource materials which are used with students in court and in the classroom or advise individual students on research or internship programs. Volunteers can also make contacts with related community organizations and agencies which students might want to visit.

A job description including type of work, number of hours, and recommended experience was distributed to our local volunteer bureau. Their staff took the volunteer calls and referred appropriate individuals to the court coordinator. The coordinator also wrote an article for the local papers describing the court-based education program and asking that persons interested in working with the program contact the court. Volunteers were recruited through these two means. The program coordinator scheduled group meetings with those who expressed interest in volunteering.

The orientation meetings were held at the court and lasted about an hour. The meeting agenda included:

1. Having them complete the Project Staff Information Form which appears in Box A.
2. Touring the court and meeting employees.
3. Giving them a court observation schedule where they either observe sessions to gain substantive knowledge of the process, or participate with scheduled classes to become familiar with student questions, interests and knowledge levels.

BOX A

PROJECT STAFF INFORMATION FORM

NAME: _____

ADDRESS: _____

TELEPHONE: _____ (home) _____ (office)

EDUCATION: _____

_____

EXPERIENCE: _____

_____

HOURS/DAYS AVAILABLE TO WORK WITH THE COURT _____

_____

PLEASE CHECK AREAS OF INTEREST

Work directly with students:

Assist with office work:

Help raise funds for expansion:

Work on program design:

Develop educational methods for use in court:

Others:

4. Reviewing the court-based program mechanics.
5. Distributing an orientation packet for project staff which includes a complete schedule of court sessions, a list of names and positions of all court employees, a sample orientation packet given to students (see the section on program models), and a list of schools and classes already scheduled for the program.

Since most scheduling of court-based programs is completed in June for the following fall, the best time to recruit volunteers is before school is out in June. Volunteers have a chance to observe the court during the summer, to review appropriate materials in a relaxed atmosphere and to plan ahead for fall. If you wait until September, some of your best volunteers may already have made other commitments. It's best for volunteers, teachers and students to start all together in the program. This is not to say that volunteers who join your program in November won't be effective, but it will take them a while to catch up with the class.

Now that your volunteers have been "hired" and are well into their orientation process, you should schedule a fall volunteers' meeting to

review their individual orientation experiences, answer substantive and programmatic questions and assign tasks for the fall program. Some volunteers may prefer working with middle school or upper elementary school students who are being exposed to the court system for the first time. Other volunteers may want to work with high school classes. Be sure to find out if any of your volunteers wish to work with their own children's classes. Proper placement of volunteers, matching skills with needs, interests and time commitments, will insure success of the program. The training is ongoing, as volunteers gain experience in the courtroom and the classroom.

Even though the spring initial orientation meeting launches your fall plans and the early fall meeting solidifies the administrative procedures, the court coordinator should keep the channels of communication open with the individual volunteers. Therefore, I recommend periodic staff meetings to share and compare experiences, assess the program, discuss problems and do some future planning.

Since most of your volunteers already possess professional training either in law or education, your orientation and training components will build on that knowledge. For example, retired attorneys or paralegals with time to give to your program need not spend time reviewing court procedure and terminology, but should review the textbooks and reading materials which are being used in the classroom to gain an understanding of students' vocabulary and reading levels.

Former teachers or those with educational skills may wish to work with students on a part-time basis. They need substantive knowledge of the court process. These volunteers should spend several weeks observing various court sessions, and be given the opportunity to review their court experiences with court staff. You should make certain that your "non-legal" volunteers feel comfortable with their roles and know who to contact when questions arise. Be they legally or educationally trained or eager citizens wishing to be involved, the volunteers should feel confident before being responsible for specific aspects of the court-based program. The coordinator should conduct the initial classroom orientation sessions while the volunteer staff observes.

Putting It All Together

I have found that once the word is out that the court is receptive to school involvement and is offering student and teacher orientations, a growing number of classes request court visits. Planning ahead and communicating with teachers is a key role of the program coordinator. You may find that teachers call on short notice or don't call at all before bringing students to court because they know the sessions are open to the public and no one needs "a reserved seat." Encouraging teachers to plan early so

they are assured a good selection of available court dates and sessions helps to avoid dilemmas of overscheduling and having to say "no" to some classes. The coordinator should organize the court visit, including recess speakers and precourt review of the trial list, and should inform other court personnel of class visits, including which session will be observed and for how long.

Even though most court staff, including secretarial and custodial personnel, will not be directly involved in the organization of the program, they all take pride in the fact their court is working with their children and their friends' children. Be sure that a schedule of school visits, which includes the number of students, the school grade, teacher, court session and speaker, is circulated on a weekly or monthly basis to court personnel. The schedule not only helps court personnel feel a part of the program, but if a student strays or a busload of students arrives before the coordinator does, other people in the court can direct the students and fill in briefly. If they were not aware of the students' visit, they might just continue with their work and feel no obligation to help.

Similarly, communication within the school community is important. Be sure that schools receive a schedule of court sessions including the time they begin and the type of sessions. Most courts have regular criminal, civil, small claims and juvenile sessions. Teachers need to be able to plan ahead, whether they wish to involve the court in a semester-long course or to bring students to court only once. Therefore, it is critical for coordinators to keep all schools within their court's jurisdiction informed of the court schedule.

In addition to the court schedule, teachers should be given instruction sheets which include pertinent information for preparing students for court. Sample handouts on court procedure appear at the back of this article. Students need to know the rules of the court, as described in Box B.

Another way of establishing clear communications between courts and schools is to offer to conduct a classroom orientation session prior to the class coming to court. This procedure helps clear up some of the students' questions and allows a court person the opportunity to meet the students and teachers before the often hectic court arrival at 8:30 A.M. Students may have read about probation officers, or heard a friend talk about a "P.O.," but meeting one in person on their turf helps assure a useful court experience.

The program coordinator who is also a court employee does not have time to visit all the classes prior to their court visits. Here is where your trained volunteers fit in. Not only can volunteers conduct classroom orientations, but they can then accompany the students to court, see that they have a review of the trials they will hear that day, and schedule recess

BOX B

The general public courtroom procedures we must follow include:

1. Everyone in the courtroom rises when the judge enters and leaves the courtroom.

2. Do not chew gum, talk, make any kind of noise or put feet on the benches in the courtroom.

3. Do not leave the courtroom in the middle of a trial. You may leave during a recess, but if you need to leave at any other time, contact your teacher or a court officer.

4. Sit as close to the front as possible so you can hear better. The microphones are recording devices to make a tape of the proceedings: They are not speakers that help you to hear better.

5. You will have an opportunity to speak with the judge, so you should write down any questions you have during the court session. You probably will see more activity with court people moving around the room than you expect to see. This means you will have to be a very sharp observer because things will happen quite fast at times.

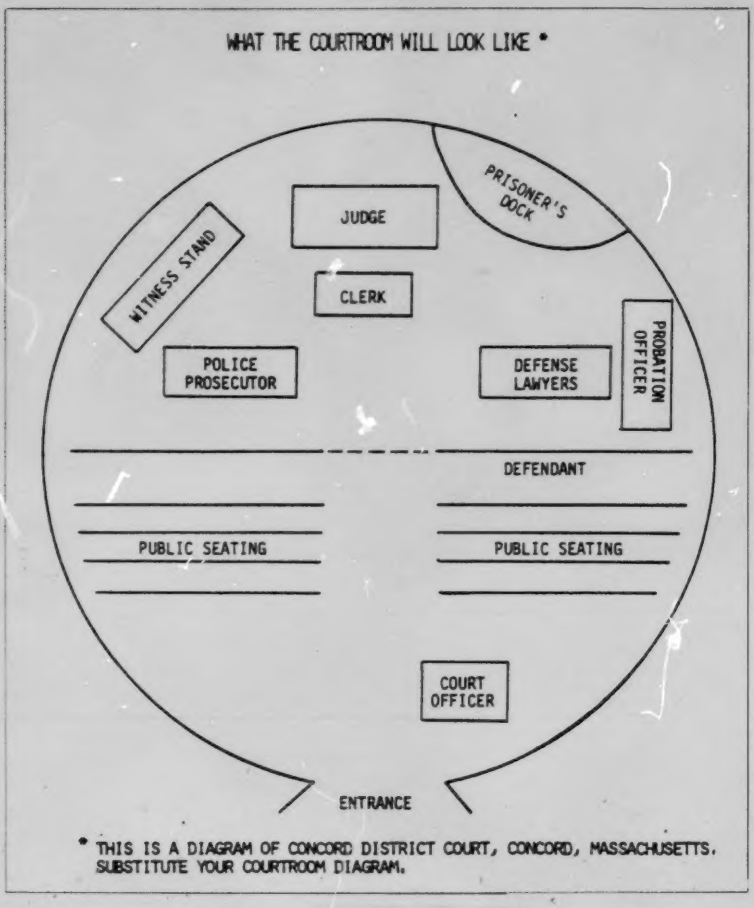
speakers. Volunteers can help route the class to the right place when it arrives for a court visit. A diagram of the court floor plan is helpful, as shown in Box C. The teacher may have someone special in mind to address the students, and the volunteer can arrange that, too.

When students need to return to school before the current trial is concluded, the court staff person can contact the teacher with the results of the trial. Often the classroom teacher whose students are scheduled for only one court visit will request a follow-up by a court staff person. It is common that certain professionals become very popular with schools. It's important to share these responsibilities with as many people as possible to prevent "burn out" of your volunteer speaker/resource people and to train other resource people who feel comfortable in the classroom.

The more volunteers who participate in the court-based program, the broader your resource bank will become and the more advocates you'll have for your program. The program coordinator should keep a file of resource persons in the legal and law enforcement community who can assist in the various activities on the program. Resource people will often help with mock trial procedures, mock arrests and numerous activities which bring the pages of a textbook to life.

With open and clear communications between the school systems and the court and within the court itself, a program coordinator can administer an effective program. The extensive court-based programs for both teachers and students which are described in this article are coordinated by

BOX C



a trained volunteer with a court employee as an advisor and a staff of trained volunteers.

Law Education Seminar

Teachers often include law-related units in their social studies curricula or examine contemporary legal issues which arise during classroom discussion. One way in which a court-based program can help both the experienced and inexperienced teacher deal with law-related issues is to offer a law education seminar.

The seminar is based on the premise that preparation of teachers is essential for integrating the study of law and the courts into the existing curriculum or for designing new curriculum. The seminar exposes teachers to courts, substantive law, and related classroom methods and activities. Teachers vary in the amount of knowledge they have regarding law, the courts, and related teaching methods. It is important to allow time for teachers to interact with court personnel in order to ask questions and to test rationale.

Assisting teachers, with or without formal court programs for students, is an excellent way courts can serve their area school systems while enhancing their community image. Where one school system alone cannot offer this type of help to several interested teachers, a district court, as a central, regional focal point for all school systems within its jurisdiction, has the contacts and knowledge to offer assistance to teachers from many school systems. In return the courts will be viewed by not only the school systems but by the community as a whole, as a concerned, interested and visible part of the community.

Together with the teachers, the court coordinator will need to determine how many seminar sessions to plan – ten to fifteen sessions might be appropriate. A sample law education seminar from a program conducted in the Concord (Massachusetts) District Court appears in Box D. Each session should follow a similar pattern, with at least half of the time devoted to presentations by experts in a particular aspect of the law or the court system. The remainder of each session should be spent demonstrating methods which teachers can use to make the law interesting and meaningful in the classroom. Also, interested members of the community can be invited to attend.

Limit the methods part of each session to teachers, however, as they are the ones directly involved in the task of communicating the substantive materials to students. This part of the seminar could lose its effectiveness if the number of individuals attending becomes unmanageable and the people's interests and experiences are not consistent with those of the teachers.

How to Begin?

Several critical steps are involved in researching, planning and implementing a law education seminar. This information is also useful if you choose to implement less involved programs.

1. Establish your goals and objectives for the seminar, including the projected number of sessions necessary to meet these goals and objectives. The following sample goals provide a starting point.
    a. Expose teachers to the alternative curriculum pro-

BOX D

TOPIC	DATE	GUEST SPEAKER
Court Systems	April 3	Judge Arlyne F. Hassett Special Justice Waltham District Court
Need for Law	April 10	Chief Justice Edward F. Hennessey, Supreme Judicial Court
Criminal Law	April 24	Attorney Robert A. Barton Russian & Barton, Lexington
Civil Law	May 1	Attorney Elliot Lilien Concord-Carlisle Regional High School
Law Enforcement	May 8	Chief James Corr Lexington Police Department
Trial Procedures	May 15	Judge John P. Forte Presiding Justice District Court of Central Middlesex
Law & Legal Order Ideal vs. Reality	May 22	Attorney William M. Gibson Regional Director, Federal Trade Commission
Corrections	June 5	Judge Paul Chernoff, Justice, Newton District Court and former Parole Board Chairman
Contemporary Legal Issues	June 10	Professor Joseph Senna Northeastern Graduate School of Criminal Justice
Juvenile Court, Juvenile Law, & Probation	June 10	Chief Probation Officer Edward Gaffey, District Court of Central Middlesex
Consumer Law	June 12	Attorney Paula Gold, Chief, Consumer Protection Division

Each session was two hours long.

1. 1st hour - Content with outside speaker.
2. 2nd hour - Methods by Arlene F. Gallagher, Assistant Professor of Education, Elms College, Chicopee, MA

cess where the court becomes an integrated part of a law-related curriculum.

b. Provide teachers with substantive knowledge through lectures and dialogues with experts.
c. Provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences among teachers from the school systems within the court's jurisdiction, court staff and

other professionals in the field of law and the court system.

d. Provide teachers with classroom methods for transmitting legal knowledge to students, with particular attention to reading difficulties and student motivation problems.

2. Contact your area school superintendents. Share with them your goals and objectives, then together determine if there is an interest and a need for such a seminar.
3. If the interest and need are present determine the following:
   a. How many teachers from each system or school will attend?
   b. Will in-service credit be given the teachers?
   c. Will the participating schools make copies of the educational information needed for the seminar?
   d. Will participating schools purchase other published law-related educational materials?

   If schools are unable to assist in providing the necessary resource materials, the local bar association or related community agencies might provide this service.
4. Form a committee of three or four community and court-related people who will assist in the planning and implementation of the seminar. Clearly define their responsibilities and time commitments.
5. Ask the school system to supply the names, addresses and telephone numbers of teachers who have expressed an interest in attending the seminar. Try to anticipate their areas of concern before the initial meeting, so that you are prepared for questions.
6. Schedule an orientation meeting for those teachers. The following items should be included in your meeting agenda, a copy of which should be provided each teacher.
   a. Determine the best day of the week, time of day, length of each session and location for the seminar. If the court has the space, it is recommended that the seminar be held at the court.

      The amount of time you and the teachers are able to devote to the seminar may vary considerably. You have to use your own judgment in making this decision but try to devote enough time so that the experience with the court is not superficial. Also, try to be flexible. If, after your pro-

gram is designed, the teachers want to shorten or lengthen it, you should be able to do this.

b. From a list of possible topics, have the teachers identify topics in which they are most interested and allow space for them to add other topics. It is always easier and sound, educationally, to start with what people are interested in learning. One of the first steps, then, is a simple and obvious one: Ask the teachers what they want to learn.

c. When these mechanical details have been worked out with the teachers, let them know when the full schedule of topics and speakers will be mailed to them.

d. Ask your teachers to complete a Teacher Information Form, like the sample which appears in Box E. Information gained from such a form will enhance your seminar planning.

7. Select seminar speakers for each topic. Both court and school personnel can make recommendations. Most people are more than willing to volunteer their time for what they perceive as a most worthwhile endeavor. Don't be timid about asking anyone you think would be valuable for your program. It's often true that the busiest people with the most demanding jobs are the ones who will agree to assist you.

8. Choose a coordinator for the methods instruction portion of the seminar. Unlike the substantive part, which has a different speaker for each session, one person should handle all methods sessions to provide continuity. A court program coordinator could handle this responsibility or delegate it to a teacher or local education specialist willing to assume the responsibility. Methods can include case studies, role-playing, simulation games, mock trials and values analysis. The overall purpose of such activities is to have teachers experience the methods before using them in the classroom.

9. Prepare seminar speakers. Each speaker should first be contacted either by telephone or in writing and given an explanation of the purposes and objectives of the program. The program coordinator should meet with each speaker who accepts the invitation. Whenever possible, this should be done at the convenience of the speaker. Key points for the topics can then be identified. It might be helpful to have each seminar session follow a similar format:

    a. Overview of the topic.

BOX E

TEACHER INFORMATION SURVEY

NAME_____ SCHOOL_____

NO. YEARS TEACHING _____ EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

DEGREES_____

MAJOR FIELD_____

HAVE YOU EVER TAUGHT A LAW-RELATED COURSE?_____

IF SO, WHAT BOOKS WERE USED?_____

_____

ANY COMMUNITY COMPONENT?_____ IF SO, PLEASE EXPLAIN_____

_____

HAVE YOU EVER USED THE FOLLOWING METHODS?

CASE STUDY_____ SIMULATIONS_____

VALUES CLARIFICATION_____ MOCK TRIALS_____

ROLE PLAYING_____ OTHERS_____

WHAT COURSE(S) ARE YOU TEACHING NOW?

SUBJECT_____ LEVEL_____

WHAT DO YOU HOPE TO GAIN FROM THIS IN-SERVICE TRAINING COURSE?

WHAT PROBLEMS DO YOU ANTICIPATE IN TEACHING A LAW-RELATED COURSE?

ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS OR INFORMATION WHICH WILL HELP THE COURSE PLANNERS BETTER ADDRESS YOUR NEEDS AS A TEACHER?

b. Historical background.
c. Common misconceptions regarding the topic.
d. Current controversial issues related to the topic, such as recent court decisions or other actions.
e. Future predictions: What things are likely to happen in the next ten years in this area?
f. Question and answer period.

Some Specific Examples

The following examples illustrate some possible law education seminar topics you might include in your program and ways in which these topics

can be introduced to students. (These topic descriptions have been contributed by Arlene F. Gallagher, Assistant Professor, Elms College, Chicopee, MA, and author of *The Methods Book, Strategies for Law-Focused Education,* Chicago: Law in American Society Foundation, 1977.)

Example #1: Court Systems

The speaker for this substantive session must be very familiar with court systems, both state and federal. The session should also explain the difference between original jurisdiction and appellate jurisdiction. Students will be particularly interested in juvenile court so the teachers should become familiar with this court, either in this session, or in another session on juvenile justice.

In Massachusetts, residents should understand that a significant court reorganization has taken place recently. These changes provide centralized, uniform and modern case management, personnel and budget procedures. The significant changes in jurisdiction should also be explained, especially with regard to the district courts, now renamed Divisions of the District Court Department of the Trial Court of the Commonwealth. The speaker should describe the civil changes with regard to increase in transfer limit ($4,000 to $7,500) and the change in small claims which now handles claims up to $750. Other changes that should be noted are the expanded jurisdiction of the district court, the criminal procedure changes, the new motor vehicle procedures, and the changes in the trial de novo process.

The methods presentation can clarify the two court systems, federal and state, and the concepts of original and appellate jurisdiction which can be very confusing to the layperson. It is wise to choose a speaker who not only has a thorough grasp of these topics, but one who can explain them without creating more confusion.

One way to explain jurisdiction, for example, is to select a series of cases and have the teachers determine whether state or federal courts would have jurisdiction. Some hypothetical cases follow:

1. A sixteen-year-old girl is kidnapped in New Hampshire and taken to Florida. The kidnappers ask for $10,000 in ransom.
2. Two men steal a car in New York and bring it to New Jersey where they abandon it.
3. A woman is stopped for driving too fast. It is obvious that she has had a great deal to drink. This is her third offense.
4. A building contractor does a very poor job on a new house. The plaster peels off and the floors are not level.

Example #2: Trial Procedures

The speaker for this substantive session must be very familiar with trial

procedures and rules of evidence. A judge is often the best choice for this session. The presentation should include the process for a civil action and the process for a criminal action. The differences between these two actions should be explained with particular attention to the burden of proof. The various types of admissible evidence and the rationale for admissibility should be explained. The speaker should cover irrelevant statements, hearsay, illegally obtained evidence, biased views, public opinion and rumors.

There are a number of different activities that can be used for a methods presentation on trial procedures. The mock trial activity is commonly used to demonstrate the process of a trial. As participants go through the motions of conducting a trial, they become familiar with the sequence of steps and the reasons for the particular sequence.

The best way to have teachers work with the concept of evidence is to have the teachers role-play the judges. In this activity the leader presents a series of excerpts from testimony and the teachers decide whether or not the evidence is admissible. Some sample excerpts are:

1. Fred Collins is charged with breaking and entering. A prosecution witness says, "Fred Collins cheats on his wife and beats his kids."
2. Marcia Reiley is charged with possession of illegal drugs. A police officer at the trial says he searched Marcia's house without a warrant even though he had time to obtain one.
3. Nancy Kelleher is charged with grand larceny. A witness for the prosecution says that Nancy told the witness she was going to get a lot of money soon.

Example #3: Ideal v. Reality in the Law

The speaker for this substantive session must be someone with considerable experience in the field and the ability to take a perspective on law as an ideal and how it actually functions in reality. It is first helpful to present a definition of law. It is a management tool for ordering society. It also addresses deviance from societal rules (actual or anticipated) within a society. Law is a written perception of right or wrong as perceived at any given time by a changing majority.

There are a number of examples that can be used to illustrate the discrepancy between law as an ideal and law as a reality. Here are some illustrations to which teachers can relate:

1. The law assures us the right to counsel. The reality is that defense attorneys are overworked and do not have enough time to adequately prepare a defense.
2. The concept of corrections is based upon the premise that this will deter certain behaviors and that people will be corrected or reha-

bilitated. The reality is that there is a good deal of recidivism and the crime rate has not diminished.

3. The law is based upon the premise that ignorance of the law is not an excuse. The reality is that there are 75,000 pages of federal regulations produced every year. Can people realistically be expected to know about these regulations?

Teachers can begin to analyze the intent and actual effect of the law in this methods session. The following questions help focus discussions. If the group is large, separate it into small groups of five or six people. One person should be selected to act as a recorder to report back to the entire group when it meets after discussion.

1. Identify a law (one that the group thinks is important). What are its objectives?
2. How necessary is this law to the functioning of society?
3. How well written is the law?
4. How easy is it for us to understand it?
5. Does the law tell exactly what to do or not to do?
6. How appropriate are the sanctions contained in the law to the conduct being regulated?
7. How observable is the conduct to be regulated?
8. How well does the law coincide with the morals of the people?
9. How easy is it to administer the law?
10. Who enforces the law?
11. Is this law accepted by the people?
12. What injustices occur under the law?
13. How is the law capable of achieving justice?
14. To what degree does the law serve the ends of society as against those of the individual?

After the Seminar

If you wish to evaluate your law education seminar, the evaluation form in Box F was used successfully in the Concord (Massachusetts) District Court program. After the law education seminar, teachers will want to decide how to utilize court facilities. The extent of court involvement will depend on the course being taught and the grade level. The extensive court-based student program described here can be modified, of course. Teachers who are already familiar with law education may expand or redesign their present curriculum using new teaching methods and current substantive issues from the seminar. Less experienced teachers might work up an entire section for in-class and courtroom study with the coordinator. This particular model is being used at the high school level in district courts throughout Massachusetts. Teachers work closely with the court

BOX F

COURSE EVALUATION

LAW EDUCATION PROGRAM

1. What changes would you recommend (content, timing, length, location, etc.)?

2. What additions would you suggest?

3. What sessions were most beneficial or interesting? Why?

4. What parts of the seminar were most useful in developing or expanding your law curriculum?

5. Would you like to see the course offered again? If yes, for whom, and when?

Please complete and return to _____ by _____
(date)

Thank you.

program coordinator so that the various visits to court throughout the semester or year relate to the specific subject matter being covered in the classroom.

When students visit court only once, they invariably choose to visit a criminal session. With the extended visit model, students have a chance to observe several criminal sessions plus small claims sessions, civil sessions, magistrate's hearings and the chance to use a courtroom for a day to enact a mock trial.

At the end of a semester or year-long interaction with the court process and those people who make it work, students not only acquire in-depth knowledge of the system but develop a rapport with officials. Court personnel form friendships with these young people, which is so critical if these students are to have a lasting respect for their system of justice. Under-

BOX G

Court Visit Schedule

SESSION	DATE	HOURS	FIRST RECESS SPEAKERS
Criminal	March 5	8:30 - 1:00	Police Prosecutor/State Police Officer
Criminal	April 2	8:30 - 1:00	Defense Attorney/Public Defender
Criminal	April 23	8:30 - 1:00	Probation Officer
Civil	May 10	9:30 - 1:00	Presiding Justice
Small Claims	May 17	9:30 - 1:00	Clerk/Magistrate
Mock Trial	June 1	9:00 - 1:00	Assistant District Attorney

Procedures

1. Meet in the Jury Pool Room at 8:30 for review of the day's trial list with a court officer.
2. Listed speakers will talk with you at the first recess.
3. For each session you observe, you will meet with the judge during the second recess.
4. On your mock trial day you will have a courtroom for the morning, with court personnel assisting you in preparing for your respective roles.

neath that black robe, or behind that probation officer's rules, is someone who has demonstrated an interest in and concern for young people by giving them their time and expertise.

Court personnel, because of their contacts and involvement with both law enforcement and corrections officers, can be very helpful in assisting teachers to build on their district court experience. Teachers often want students to visit a superior court session, tour their local police station, visit their local house of corrections or a state prison facility. The court can set up meetings for teachers with the appropriate people in these other institutions and agencies. If persons in these other institutions know that the teachers are involved in a district court program, they are often more willing to accommodate teachers' requests. They realize these teachers are committed to educating their students about the court system and related facilities.

A sample high school schedule appears in Box G. Some programs are concentrated, covering five or six weeks, while others cover a semester or a

year. The focus of any court program will be determined by the needs of the school system and the availability of court personnel.

An extended court visit program can be set up without a law education seminar. If you are the coordinator, once goals have been established and meetings with school officials and teachers have been held, you can begin scheduling court activities. Here are some suggested steps:

1. Determine the number and types of court sessions which the students wish to observe, coordinating this schedule with all the area schools that have decided to participate.
2. Share your orientation materials with the teachers, so that relevant information can be duplicated for participating students.
3. If it seems appropriate, schedule classroom orientation sessions so students have an opportunity to meet with the court program coordinator or a delegate prior to the court visit. Review a sample trial list with the class along with courtroom procedures and manners and answer questions. The semester or year-long court visit schedule can be explained at this time.
4. Make certain that all court personnel are aware of the student visit schedule and the purpose of the program.
5. Select specific court personnel to talk with students during their visits. Provide each speaker with suggested topics to cover, and their allotted time with students; allow for a question/answer period. If possible, a judge should meet briefly with the students each time they visit. Tests have shown that students involved in extensive court visit programs have the greatest positive attitude change toward judges.
6. Make certain that each teacher has a copy of the court visit schedule, while maintaining a master schedule at the court. This schedule should include the list of recess speakers who will be meeting with the students.
7. If possible, provide each teacher with a copy of the trial list for the session which the students will be observing. Teachers can duplicate the list so each student has a copy and can use it for taking notes during the session.
8. Students should arrive at court at least 20 minutes before the session begins. During this time, the program coordinator can review the trial list so students understand the charges and possible dispositions, explain the day's schedule and make certain that students are seated in the courtroom before the session begins.
9. Time should be set aside for students to have a snack or eat

lunch, especially if their court visit extends beyond their school lunchtime.

10. Be sure teachers have a list of resource people such as local attorneys who are willing to help students with mock trials and answer questions between court visits. Often court personnel are willing to serve as resource people, even though they are not directly involved in the administration of the program.
11. Using the goals and objectives outlined at the beginning of the program, evaluate your program. If time permits, interview students about their reactions to the program and get suggestions for improvement.

Regardless of the number of court visits your teachers decide to include in their curriculum, the critical point is to have the visit to court fit into and not be separate from what the students are studying. If students are studying the Bill of Rights and due process, a criminal arraignment and trial would benefit them. Your recess speaker could be a defense counsel who would explain to the students how a case is prepared. If the students are studying consumer rights, a small claims session is ideal for bringing issues to life. The clerk of court is an excellent recess speaker for this session, to explain the procedures for filing a small claims petition. The judge can also reinforce the informality of these proceedings.

Recess Speakers

The scheduling of recess speakers is an important component of your court visit program. Students have an opportunity to question the court practitioners immediately after observing them. Issues are fresh in their minds and the hearing or trial can be discussed from several different perspectives.

You should not expect court visit recess speakers to cover specific and in-depth topics which should be saved for classroom discussion. Remember they are part of the courtroom scene and need to get back to work when court reconvenes. Recess speakers can answer student questions and add to the actual court experience, but they ought not to lecture or present points of view during their brief break. However, you will find that some recess speakers want to have a general idea of subjects to be covered before meeting the students. Provide them with suggested subject areas based on previous class questions, as seen in Box H. The primary purpose of the recess speaker is to "debrief" the students on what they have just observed, so the method and manner of the recess speaker is critical to the success of the session. Direct questions requiring opinion answers will get the students talking. Your speakers should try to be warm and friendly; informality and humor will help get the students to relax and ask questions.

BOX H

POLICE PROSECUTOR/STATE POLICE/ASSISTANT DISTRICT ATTORNEY

What are the rules of search and seizure, especially as they relate to car searches?

How does a case come before the court?

What factors influence the decision to prosecute?

What training do you need to do your job?

What else do you do besides prosecute cases?

CLERK/MAGISTRATE/ASSISTANT CLERK

How does one bring a small claims suit?

What else do you do besides your courtroom work?

How did you become a clerk?

What type of training did you have?

What is a clerk's hearing? A magistrate's hearing?

PROBATION OFFICER

Who determines the rules of probation?

What happens when you are put on probation?

What do you do besides help the judge during a court session?

How do you become a probation officer?

With what community agencies do you work?

DEFENSE ATTORNEY

How do you prepare a case?

Do you ever think your client is guilty? If so, how do you prepare your defense?

How much do you charge to defend someone?

Recess speakers should be invited as far in advance as possible. Be sure they know the name of the school and the grade level of the students. The recess speakers should have an outline of the court observation schedule of the class, if possible. The more information about the students which the recess speaker has in advance, the more likely s/he is to be relaxed and informal. Since the students observe the recess speakers in their formal roles, they want a chance for the informal inside view in a discussion session.

The program coordinator can introduce the recess speaker to the class unless there is a student whom the teacher feels would be effective in the

role. That student could lead the discussion as well, which is one way of stimulating class involvement and bridging the gap between the speaker and the class. Otherwise, if the recess speaker is confronted with a silent class, s/he can ask *and* answer a question and then solicit student opinions.

Following the recess, students return to court for further observations.

What to Do if . . .

If students must return to school before the trial they are watching is concluded, be sure to let the teacher know what the students missed, including relevant testimony and the verdict.

If the reverse happens and court sessions end early the courtrooms are free for impromptu mock trials. You can give the students fact sheets on small claim cases, divide them into teams, and see who wants to volunteer to be the judge. Let the students get the feeling of going beyond "the bar" and of assuming the roles they just finished observing in an actual hearing. Besides the courtrooms being available, the court personnel may have some unexpected free time and can assist in the two activities below. The program coordinator should be prepared with activities sheets in the event they are needed unexpectedly.

Activity #1: "How To . . . ?" Game

Directions:

1. Give students a sheet with a list of the following questions or list the questions for students to copy.
2. Hopefully, several students will be interested in each of the questions. See if there are other questions which the students want answered. Then have them divide up into groups according to the question they chose.
3. Ask students to identify resources within the court facility where they might find the answers to the questions.
4. After the questions have been answered (allow 15-20 minutes), students should meet as a group and share their answers.
5. If time doesn't permit adequate sharing of information at the court, this activity can be continued in the classroom.

"How To . . . ?'s"

- *How* do I bring a suit in small claims court?
- *How* can a judge be removed from office?
- *How* can I become a probation officer?
- *How* do I find a copy of a Supreme Court decision?
- *How* much do defense attorneys make per hour?
- *How* much money can I make and still have a court pay for my attorney?

- *How* many facts have to be proven to find me guilty of driving under the influence of alcohol? For possession of marijuana?
- *How* high does the breathalyzer test have to read to prove I am drunk?

Activity #2: Court Careers

Directions:

1. Ask students to name as many court jobs as they can.
2. If they could hold those jobs for a day, which ones would they choose?
3. Divide students into groups by the jobs which were chosen, trying to have all identified jobs "filled."
4. In groups, develop interview questions related to their chosen jobs. Time: 10 minutes.
5. Interview as many court people as possible who hold those jobs. Time: 15 minutes.
6. Report to class as a whole interesting information acquired during the interviews. This discussion can continue in the classrooms.

Role of the court program coordinator:

- In advance of the class visit, see if court personnel are willing to participate in the court careers activity.
- Be a resource for the teacher providing additional career information if requested.
- Explain that the activity can be used in the classroom with students arranging special appointments with their respective court people.

It Can Work . . .

The court-based programs described in this article represent extensive involvement on the part of the court and the school system. You should select objectives, activities and organizational models which meet the needs in your community. Your program coordinator can be a court secretary if your program is small. If your program is extensive, someone willing to spend several days a week coordinating the activities will be required.

If you choose to train teachers or to involve students on a continuing basis, or both, clear communication of information, not only between the court and the schools, but within the court itself, is essential to the success of your court-based program. If all your component parts—students, teachers, recess speakers, court personnel—are aware of your total program and have shared in the planning process, your program will work.

Sample Handouts Given to Students Visiting Court

Your Name_____ Section_____ Date_____

A visit to: _____ District Court

These readings are to help you understand what you will see and hear when you visit the _____ District Court. There are many special words used in a courtroom. Before you visit, try to master the meanings of the new words you will hear in court and the roles of the people you will see at work there.

We will visit the courtoom of Judge _____

I. What Kind of Court is This?

Throughout the United States there are two sets of judicial systems. One set is that of the state and local courts established in each state under the autnority of the state government. The other is that of the United States courts set up under the authority of the Constitution by the Congress of the United States.

The Constitution merely provides: "The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish."

Thus, the only indispensable court is the Supreme Court, and the Congress has from time to time established and abolished various other United States courts.

The state courts have general, unlimited power to decide almost every type of case, subject only to the limitations of the state law. The United States courts have power to decide only those cases in which the Constitution gives them authority.

Each court system has the same job to do within its jurisdiction:

A. A criminal court decides whether a person accused of breaking a law is guilty or not guilty.

Prosecution (Government) v. Defendant (Person)

Penalties in this court require that offenders go to jail or pay a fine or both. This is to protect the public by providing a sentence which will punish the individual found guilty and will act as a warning to stop others from breaking the law. In Massachusetts any offense which carries the possibility of a state prison term is a felony. All other offenses are called misdemeanors.

B. A civil court decides a case where one person sues another person.

Plaintiff	vs.	Defendant
(Person(s) taking legal action against anotner ...suing.)		(Person(s) action is being brought against .. being sued.)

Disputes between private parties are settled in civil court. For example, this includes domestic relations (family fights), business relations, and auto accidents. Penalties require the offender to pay money or to do (or not to do) a specific act to (or for) the person bringing the suit. Other remedies are: restitution (repayment), compensation (paying to make up for something) and injunctions (a court order forbidding a certain action).

You will be watching a criminal court in session.

II. What will be happening in court during our visit?

You will be seeing the very first step in a number of criminal cases.

You will be seeing what is called the "initial (or first) court appearance." Most of the defendants you will see will be facing the judge for the first time. This means that during the time you see the judge presiding, she or he will be starting the court process for many cases, but you will not see how all of them end.

III. What is expected of you as a student during this visit?

Follow the courtroom behavior rules very strictly. Some judges have been known to stop everything and order visitor out of the courtroom for chewing gum, talking, etc.

Bring a pencil or pen with you on the bus so that you can write down questions you have to ask during our two question periods. You will also have an observation sheet to fill out for your teacher. It will be collected and discussed when we get back to school and have our next class.

Listen carefully and be alert with your eyes while in court.

Prepare for the court visit by learning the next pages of words and facts.

IV. What would happen if you were a defendant in criminal court today? (These are the things you would hear the judge talking about in court.)

A. Initial Court Appearance (or arraignment)

Court Visit Handouts (*continued*)

1. Notification of Rights (to the people on the arrest list)

   The judge will read the charges against you, state the maximum sentence under the law and ask how you plead to those charges. The judge will tell you that you have a right to an attorney. If you cannot afford one, the court will provide one. If you are charged with a drug-related offense, you have a right to a psychiatric examination to determine if you are drug dependent and would benefit by treatment.

2. If you give up any of these rights, you will sign a form indicating that you have been informed of your rights and you choose to waive them (put them aside). Why would anyone give up their rights?

   a. The offense is minor. The defendant knows s/he has no case. In order to speed up the process and not miss another day of work to appear in court, s/he gives up various rights so that the judge can dispose of the case right then.

   b. The defendant does not want the psychiatric examination because s/he doesn't believe s/he is drug dependent.

   c. A probation officer has helped answer the defendant's questions prior to arraignment so s/he doesn't need an attorney, especially in minor cases.

   d. The defendant has been told s/he can ask procedural questions in open court.

   e. The defendant is not indigent (without sufficient funds to afford an attorney), knows s/he's guilty and doesn't want to spend the money for an attorney.

3. "How do you plea?" To answer the charges against you, one of these pleas may be made:

   a. Guilty

   b. Not guilty

   c. Not guilty but admits to sufficient facts to support a finding of guilty

   If you plead not guilty but admit to sufficient facts to support a finding of guilty, the judge will ask for the police report to be read and will make a finding right then. By entering this plea, instead of a straight guilty plea, you keep your right to appeal to another court and your case is disposed of on the spot so you do not have to come back to court another day on these charges (unless you appeal to another court.)

4. "Any reason P.R. won't suffice?" (meaning: Can the person be set free on personal recognizance?)

P.R. is an abbreviation for personal recognizance. If it appears that a person will not run away and can be trusted to appear on the trial date, the person makes a written promise to appear and is released. This means s/he is released on personal recognizance. At the time of the arraignment, if a person pleads not guilty, a date for trial is set. The date is usually three weeks from the time of arraignment to allow both sides to prepare their cases.

If there is a doubt that the person will appear in court on the trial date, the court will set bail to make sure s/he appears.

5. Default, Warrant (or Default Warrant) to issue

When a person is summoned into court and does not appear, s/he is defaulted and a warrant for her/his arrest is issued. If a defendant has been before the court and has been released on personal recognizance (giving the court your word that you will return) or on bail and does not appear, s/he is defaulted and a default warrant for her/his arrest is issued. On a default warrant, only a judge can release the defendant or set bail. On a warrant, a bail commissioner, a clerk or assistant clerk can release or set bail.

6. Second call for financial statement

If a defendant says s/he wishes a court-appointed attorney because s/he can't afford to pay a lawyer (claiming to be "indigent"), a probation officer will interview the person about her/his financial status. This information will be written up and given to the judge. The judge will then decide if the court will appoint an attorney for that person. "Second call" means that the case will be called again when the judge has a second reading of the arrest/trial list which will happen before any trials begin.

7. Is the defendant eligible for "the program?"

"The program" means an alcohol education program to which people may apply if they have been charged with driving under the influence of alcohol and if they will admit that they have alcohol problems. Following a probation investigation, a person's eligibility is decided. When the person finishes the alcohol education program, her/his guilty finding is revoked and, the driver's license is returned. Some courts refer defendants to a program without a guilty finding. In such cases, licenses are not suspended.

* * *

From the list above you can tell how many strange new words you will hear at the arraignments we will observe during the criminal session.

Test yourself on this arraignment vocabulary by finding the answers to the following:

1. If a person signs a waiver of her/his rights, it means s/he agreed to _____
_____

2. How does the judge find out if a person cannot afford a lawyer? _____
_____

3. Which seems to be more serious: having a warrant out for your arrest or having a default warrant out for your arrest? Why? _____
_____
_____

4. Who is "held for a bail hearing?" _____
_____

5. If you want to appeal your case later, what kind of a plea should you make at the time of your arraignment?
_____
_____

6. What is "the program?" _____
_____

7. What does "P. R." mean? _____

8. In what form does the court get a person's promise to come back for trial if they are allowed to go free on "personal recognizance?" _____
_____

9. Who is against the defendant in a criminal case? _____
_____

10. Who is against the defendant in a civil case? _____
_____

11. The U.S. Constitution provides for how many courts?
_____

12. What does "initial court appearance" mean? _____
_____

* * *

B. Trial

You will see many trials, buth they will not look the same as those you see on TV where the camera focuses on only one kind of action.

When a trial begins, the case will be called as it appears on your day sheet. Often the defendant waives the reading of the charges because those people involved are familiar with them. Be sure you refer to your day sheet so you know what these charges are.

These are some of the phrases you will hear during the trial:

1. "It's an admission, Your Honor"

   During the call of the trial list, the defense counsel has decided not to go to trial, but to change the client's plea to "not guilty but admits to sufficient facts" or "guilty" or "nolo contendere." In such cases, the prosecution reads a factual report on the case, which is not objected to by the defense counsel, then the judge makes a finding and pronounces sentence.

2. "Held for second call for disposition"

   In cases where an admission of guilt has been made, the judge will dispose of the case when the trial list is called the second time. Disposition means the method by which the court terminates the complaint in court. Sentencing by imprisonment or fines is a form of disposition.

3. "I object" - "Objection sustained/overruled"

   Either the prosecutor or the defense counsel can object to a question or the admission of an exhibit. The judge will usually ask the person objecting, "On what rule of evidence are you relying?" Then the judge either allows the objection thus preventing the evidence from being introduced or s/he overrules the objection thus allowing the question or exhibit to be admitted as evidence.

4. "The Commonwealth rests"

   The prosecutor has completed the introduction of evidence to the court.

5. "Any closing arguments?"

   The judge will ask first the defense counsel and then the prosecutor if they have any arguments to present to the court or statements on behalf of their position. The defense counsel always goes before the prosecution in the presentation of closing arguments. This means the prosecution speaks last.

6. "Continued without a finding"

   No finding is made. If the defendant does not get into trouble during the continuation period, no further action against the defendant is taken. If the defendant does get into trouble, the case can be brought forward for a finding. As long as no finding is made, no criminal conviction is recorded.

C. Disposition (Finish up the Case)

Disposition may take place after you have made a plea of not guilty, but admit to sufficient facts to support a finding of guilty. That day the judge makes a finding based on the police report. Or disposition may take place at the end of a trial when the judge makes a finding.

These are examples of possible dispositions:

1. "Case is dismissed"

   When the judge makes a finding of not guilty, the case is dismissed, and the defendant is free to leave the courtroom.

2. "Case is placed on file"

   After nearing the facts, with or without a finding, the judge files the case with the clerk's office where all court records are kept. A motion by the government can be filed at any time to bring the case forward, but this action is rare. If the defendant repeats the original offense, additional action could be taken on the case and a finding could then be made by the judge.

3. "Six months suspended sentence"

   The judge has made a finding of guilty and has sentenced the defendant to serve six months in a correctional institution. But then the judge suspends the sentence, which means the defendant doesn't have to be put in the institution. However, the defendant is usually then placed on probation for a period of time. If during that period, the defendant gets into more trouble, her/his probation could be revoked. A surrender nearing is held, and it is possible that the defendant will serve all or part of the original sentence.

4. "Placed on probation"

   The judge nas found the defendant guilty, and the sentence imposed is a period of probation. The defendant is not required to accept probation, but the alternatives could be a fine and/or imprisonment as outlined by the general laws of Massachusetts for that particular crime. The probation department, with tne judge's approval, sets the conditions of the period of probation.

5. "Fined $75"

   When the judge has made a finding of guilty, a fine is one form of sentencing. The general laws of Massachusetts set the ranges of fines and surfines (extra) for specific crimes.

D. Appeal

After the judge has disposed of the case, if the finding was guilty, the clerk will ask if the defendant wants to appeal.

1. Six person jury in district court

A defendant may appeal the judge's finding and/or sentence to a six-person jury trial. This means a new trial - called a trial de novo - is held. It is as if nothing ever happened, since it's a totally new trial.

* * *

Test Yourself on Trial, Disposition and Appeal Vocabulary.

Match items on left with descriptions on right:

A.	The Commonwealth	____	Judge gives sentence and closes the case.
B.	Disposition	____	Is made if defendant is not satisfied with first trial.
C.	Appeal	____	Judge calls the case again later in the morning to finish it.
D.	Probation	____	Of Massachusetts is represented by the police prosecutor.
E.	Not guilty but admits to sufficient facts to support a finding of guilty	____	Time period when defendant must keep in touch with the court and show good behavior.
F.	Held for second call for disposition	____	A plea which allows the defendant to be tried immediately but to keep the right to appeal later.

* * *

Court Visit Handouts (*continued*)

There are many other ways that motor vehicles are operated illegally. The following list shows some of the offenses you may see listed on the day sheet. Can you guess what these abbreviations mean and write the full title on the line opposite the abbreviations?

UNREG. M.V._____

OP./M/V A/SUSP._____

OP. W/O LICENSE_____

LIC. NOT IN POSS._____

UNINS. M.V._____

ALT/INSPECT/STICKER_____

ATTACH/PLATES_____

DISP/ONE REG/PLATE_____

ALT/LICENSE_____

FALSE NAME/APP FOR LIC._____

FALSE NAME/P/O_____

US/M/V W/O AUTH_____

REG. NOT W/OP_____

FAIL/KP/RT_____

FAIL/USE CARE_____

FAIL/STAY/W/LANES_____

STOP SIGN_____

TRAFFIC CONTROL SIGN_____

OP/MV W/O EYEGL_____

SPD._____

ONE WAY VIOL._____

RESTRICTED PARKING_____

REFUS/STOP/P/O_____

OP. W/O LIGHTS_____

OP. UNDER DRUGS_____

OP. UNDER INTOX. LIQ._____

Can you see the difference between these two columns?

One covers items about _____,

the other describes _____.

* * *

Common Crimes in the District Court

These are the kinds of charges you will hear read against defendants:

There are certain behaviors or ways of acting which can hurt society or individuals. In order to keep people from behaving in these ways, the state legislature has passed laws to prevent these behaviors. When someone breaks one of these laws, s/he has committed a crime.

Below you will find explanations of some of the crimes which are tried in the district courts and the possible penalties that go along with each crime.

On your day sheet there will probably be more offenses listed involving drinking and driving than any other kind of criminal activity.

1. Operating to endanger

"Operating to endanger" means operating a motor vehicle negligently so that the lives and safety of the public might be endangered. The following must be proven for you to be found guilty of the offense.

a. You were the operator of the motor vehicle on a public way or in a place where the public has a right of access.

b. You operated the motor vehicle negligently so as to put the public in danger.

If found guilty your punishment would be a fine of not less than $20 nor more than $200 or imprisonment for not less than two weeks nor more than two years or both.

2. Operating under the influence of alcohol or drugs

Operating a motor vehicle under the influence has two main parts. The first is: you were operating a motor vehicle on a public way or in a place where the public has a right of access. The second is: you must have been under the influence of alcohol or drugs while operating the motor vehicle. You need not be drunk. It does not mean you can't drive your car and drive it safely. It means only that you are affected in some perceptible way by alcohol or drugs.

If found guilty of this offense there are two statutes which outline the punishment. One states you will be fined not less than $35 nor more than $1,000 or imprisonment of not less than two weeks nor more than two years or both. The registrar of motor vehicles must suspend your license for one year.

When you are arrested the police will ask you to take a breathalyzer test to determine the amount of alcohol in your blood system. If you refuse the test, your license to drive may be taken away for a period of ninety days after a hearing at the registry of motor vehicles.

The second statute allows the court to refer you to an alcoholic education program and be placed on probation for one year. You must pay $200 if you can afford it or any portion of this amount to help support the program.

* * *

3. Minor transporting of alcoholic beverage

To be found guilty of this crime you must be under the age allowed by law to transport alcoholic beverages and be unaccompanied by a parent or legal guardian. You also must have known that you were transporting an alcoholic beverage. The punishment is a fine of not more than $50.

4. Disorderly person

You are guilty of being a disorderly person if, with the purpose to cause public inconvenience, annoyance or alarm, or recklessly creating a risk thereof, by:

a. Engaging in threatening or in violent or tumultuous behavior;

b. Making unreasonable noise or offensively causing utterances, gestures or displays, or addressing abusive language to any person present. "Vulgar, profane, offensive or abusive speech is not, without more, subject to criminal sanctions." (Commonwealth v. Juvenile, 368 Mass. 580, 1975)

c. Creating a hazardous or physically offensive condition by any act which serves no legitimate purpose to you.

The word "public" means affecting or likely to affect persons in a place which the public or any substantial group has access.

5. Larceny

By statute the crime of larceny consists of three separate common law crimes. Common law started in England and is judge-made law rather than law passed by the legislature. However, most common law crimes have now been confirmed by the legislature.

a. Larceny is taking property with the intent to deprive the owner of it permanently.

b. Embezzlement is when you have another person's property and you convert it yourself with the intent to deprive the owner of it permanently.

c. Obtaining by false pretenses is when by false pretenses you receive the property of another with the intent to deprive the owner of it permanently.

If the value of the property is worth more than $100, the maximum sentence authorized by law is five years in state prison or a fine of up to $600.

If the value of the property is less than $100, the maximum sentence authorized by law is one year in the house of correction or a fine of up to $300.

6. Assault and Battery

Assault is the attempt to beat another or an intentional placing of a person in fear of being beaten. It is an attempted battery. Battery is the unlawful beating of another.

If you are found guilty of assault and battery you may be sent to the house of correction for up to 2 1/2 years or fined up to $500.

If you are charged and found guilty of assault and battery by means of a dangerous weapon, you could be sent to state prison for not more than ten years and fined not more than $1,000 or imprisonment in jail for not more than 2 1/2 years. Most anything if used to injure someone, even a lighted cigarette, can be considered a dangerous weapon.

7. Breaking and Entering

There are many degrees of crimes involving breaking and entering, such as breaking and entering with intent to commit a felony or with intent to commit a misdemeanor.

Breaking is the changing of the condition of the building (or structure) in order to enter, such as breaking a window or opening a closed, unlocked door.

Entering is going into the building (or structure).

Examples of punishments for breaking and entering are:

a. A fine of not more than $200 or imprisonment for not more than six months or both, for breaking and entering in the nighttime with intent to commit a misdemeanor.

b. Commitment to state prison for not more than 20 years or jail or house of correction for not more than 2 1/2 years for breaking and entering in the nighttime with intent to commit a felony.

8. Possession of a controlled substance

According to Massachusetts law you must have a legal prescription to have drugs. If you don't have a legal prescription you may be guilty of possession of a controlled substance. To be guilty of this crime you must have the drug in your control and you must know you have it.

The most common offense is possession of marijuana. The penalty is imprisonment in the house of correction for not

more than one year or by a fine of $1,000 or both. If the conviction is for a first-time marijuana offense under G.L. c94C #34 and you have no prior conviction of another type of drug offense, you shall be placed on probation unless the court files a memorandum of its reasons for not doing so. If you don't get into anymore trouble during your probation period, the court will dismiss your case and your criminal record is sealed. Sealing the record is the same as not having committed the offense.

9. Major Felony Cases

Occasionally, you will observe felony cases being tried in the district court department. The court will conduct what is called a probable cause hearing to determine if the alleged offense was committed and if there is a probability that the person(s) charged committed the crime. The judge does not have to be convinced beyond a reasonable doubt. If probable cause is found, the case is sent to the grand jury of the superior court department.

One such crime is armed robbery. You would have to be carrying a dangerous weapon and by force or violence, or by assault, rob, steal or take from a person money or other property. If found guilty you could be sent to state prison for life or for any term of years.

As you can see, all of these laws say what the most severe penalty can be. None of them say that a judge has to give a person a certain penalty. This lets the judge make sure that the punishment fits the crime. What this means is that a judge may be lenient with a person. For instance, if it is a person's first time in court, the judge may sentence her/him to probation instead of sending her/him to prison. In other words, the judge can give a person a "break," in the hopes that the person will not get into any further trouble.

After studying the offenses explained on the last few pages, try to figure out these abbreviations which you might see on the day sheet the day you go to court.

DIS/PERSON _____
DIS/PEACE _____
UNNEC/NOISE _____
LARCENY (UNDER) _____
LARCENY (OVER) _____
TRESPASSING _____
ATTEMPT/LARCENY _____
A & B _____
A & B/DANG/WEAPON _____
B & E _____
CONTR/DELINQ/MINOR _____
REC/STOLEN GOODS _____
OP/S/A TO ENDANGER _____
MAL/INJ/PERS/PPTY _____
B & E W/I/COM/FELONY _____
BREAK/GLASS _____

DEFAC/SCHLHSE_____
WIL/BURN/BLDG_____
OBT/CONTR/SUBS/BY FRAUD_____
UNLAW/POSS/CONTR/SUBS_____
UNLAW/POSS/MARIJUANA_____
UNLAW/POSS/HYPO/INSTR_____
ANNOY/TEL/CALLS_____
A & B P/O_____

* * *

With your new vocabulary and your study of the rights and procedures you will see in the due process of the court, try to play the role of the defendant as you sit in the courtroom. What would you do as the defendant in each case?

What Does Commitment Mean?

If you are found guilty and the judge decides to commit you, s/he can send you to jail, the house of correction or state prison, depending on choices given by the state legislature.

Jail

In Massachusetts, jails are county institutions under county control and operated at county expense. In _____ County the jail is located in _____. Jails are used mainly for the holding of people awaiting trial or the disposition of their cases, or people who are material witnesses, or people who must serve short-term sentences. Most jail sentences are for one month or less.

House of Correction

As with jails, houses of correction are county institutions and are often located in the same community as the jails. Sentences to a house of correction cannot exceed 2-1/2 years unless a person is serving time for more than one crime and that time is served concurrently (serving time simultaneously for more than one offense.)

State Prison

State prisons are operated by the state department of corrections. State prisons are for serious offenders. A judge's authority to send you to a state prison is determined by the legislature, as are all sentences regardless of how minor the offense may be.

Each town police department has lock-up facilities which can be used for persons who need to be detained until the next court session for arraignment for alleged crimes.

Why Can't We See a Juvenile Court in Session?

Juvenile court differs from adult court because it is more informal and is closed to the public, while adult court is open to the public. Anyone who wants to, can watch the adult court. In the juvenile court, only the people directly involved in the juvenile trial are allowed in the courtroom. This is done to protect the young person by keeping her/his name and identity private. The findings in juvenile court are: delinquent or not delinquent (instead of guilty or not guilty). A juvenile court trial is really a civil procedure for people under age seventeen.

Even though you will not be observing a juvenile session, use the space below to write down any questions you have about juvenile arrests, rights, trial procedures and dispositions. Court people with whom you have discussions will be happy to answer your questions.

The People You Will See in the Criminal Court

Judge

Presides over arraignments and trials. Judges are either elected or appointed. If a judge tries a case without a jury, the judge decides what the facts are and what laws apply. In courts with jury trials, the jury decides the facts while the judge instructs the jury as to what laws apply.

Clerk

Acts as the keeper of the court papers, reads the complaints and administers oaths. District court clerks are appointed for life. Assistant clerks are hired by each individual district court. After three years they have tenure in the job for life.

Probation Officer

Provides information, as requested, on each defendant during court sessions. Tells about the defendant's financial statements, about investigations made before sentencing and about information from prior records when the judge is ready to dispose of the case. Probation officers are appointed by the judge.

Defendant

The individual accused of committing a crime; presents a case either by use of an attorney or by self; may or may not testify on own behalf; may or may not exercise rights as outlined by the judge.

Prosecutor

Tries to present evidence to prove beyond a reasonable doubt that the defendant committed the crime as charged. As either an assistant district attorney or a police prosecutor, the prosecutor represents the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

Defense Counsel

As the lawyer representing the defendant, her/his responsibility is to present evidence and arguments on behalf of the defendant so that the Commonwealth does not prove beyond a reasonable doubt that the defendant committed the crime as charged.

Witnesses

Testify under oath to facts and issues relevant to the alleged crime; may be summoned into court by the prosecutor or defense counsel and are subject to direct examination and cross examination.

Court Officers

Maintain order and decorum in the courtroom and have responsibility for all prisoners while in the courthouse.

* * *

Be sure you know the meanings of the underlined words. Ask your parents, a lawyer friend or use a dictionary.

Below list any additional words with definitions which you feel are important in order to understand the court process.

Policing the Schools: It Isn't What It Sounds Like!

Sharon Irish

A squad car, a few young people, a teacher, perhaps, gather in the school parking lot with police officers. Whether from a television show, a movie or a newspaper, the scene usually spells trouble. Right? Wrong. Wrong, at least, in Wichita, Kansas and Denver, Colorado. In these cities, police officers heading toward a classroom are probably not about to break up a fight, but rather to join a teacher in talking about law-related issues. These officers are participants in police-school liaison programs. Their presence actively counters the deterioration in police-school-community relations.

How are more realistic attitudes toward the police fostered? Generally, the approach is two-pronged. Police officers and classroom teachers work together to increase student comprehension of ordinances and laws. At the same time, police liaison officers act as troubleshooters for problems among youth who otherwise might begin a pattern of delinquency. You'd think both teachers and police are already burdened enough, but their energetic investment in provoking student thought about rules as well as helping young people in trouble seems to promise better behavior and less fear of the police, as well as an increased understanding of the complex law enforcement process.

Off the Beat and into the Classroom

How do you get two groups, police and kids, who have clashed frequently over the last several decades, to stop and listen to each other? First you have to build trust among teachers and school administrators for your police-school liaison program. Those folks are plenty wary of the police themselves. Then you need a cooperative, even enthusiastic, police department. On the street and in the school hallways are kids with guns and knives and a lot of anger, as well as young people whose idea of crime

Sharon Irish is a doctoral candidate in the history of art at Northwestern University. She worked with YEFC in the summer of 1980 as an editorial assistant.

prevention is a simplistic count of chase, arrest and lock-up. No one here has a role in a television drama: Actors from "The White Shadow" or "CHiPs" will not emerge from the screen to help write a script. Teachers and police must take the initiative.

An organizer who already has the confidence of either teachers or police can get a liaison program off the ground. In Wichita, Kathy Wilson was a career education consultant before taking her current position as coordinator of the Wichita police-school program. She had built many contacts with both primary and secondary principals and teachers in her consulting work. Her familiarity with the staff of the Wichita school system allowed her easy entree. It's also possible, of course, to find someone within a police department similarly dedicated to the idea of reconciling police and students. In Denver, the School Resource Officer Program is part of the juvenile division of the Denver Police Department. Lieutenant Lou Lopez heads this effort. More than likely, you will find interest in this project among teachers *and* police officers. The task is then to link the two.

Now, before uniform or plain-clothed police open those school doors, plans must be made to gather support, funds and curriculum materials. Arrangements must also be made for training sessions and classroom scheduling.

In any endeavor like this, the more people who know about your plans, the better. Keep in mind the police union or similar group; having them for or against you can affect your program considerably. As they discovered in Wichita, it is important that the police officers who are working in the schools remain integrated with the rest of the police force. In the early stages of the Wichita program, the liaison officers were derogatorily called "kiddie kops" and this alienation fragmented the efforts of the police department. The support and enthusiasm of colleagues can make a difference. That's why the police academy also needs to be alerted to your efforts. Though you don't want inexperienced officers in the schools, their positive attitudes can contribute to higher morale in the department.

One way to strengthen the relationships between police is to allow specialists to team up and serve separate districts. For example, one member of each team in Wichita volunteers for the school liaison slot, yet continues to work with others in his or her operational unit.

The setup in Denver is slightly different. The school resource officers work with the juvenile division. In police work all over the city, whenever a problem arises with youths, or a case of child abuse is discovered, a juvenile team takes over. Cooperation between the police on the beat and the more specialized juvenile officers contributes to a more personal treatment of the people involved. Even better, officers who have been involved with young

people in the schools are then familiar to many of the youngsters they encounter away from the school grounds.

Police officers working in liaison capacities should have three to four years of experience in regular police work. A number of these seasoned officers who express interest in students already have teaching certificates. Their experiences on the street as well as their formal training make them good candidates for your program. Certainly you will want to keep these people informed about the progress of your plans. Involving interested people from the beginning can bring together many ideas and make participants feel the program is theirs, too.

Teachers may already have a number of relevant curriculum materials scattered in different categories. Prompting them to use police officers to help teach a variety of subjects, from safety to the problems of runaways, can unify materials and classroom activities.

Principals and administrative staff need to be convinced of the merits of this program, too. Now that school administrators in Wichita know their police liaison officers, many are consulting with them on handling student confrontations. If, for instance, teachers know of a fight in the offing, school personnel can tell the liaison officer. S/he can then take steps to prevent physical violence. The liaison officer may choose to bring in street patrol officers or pick some other method of calming student tensions. Many school principals find this sort of support reassuring.

Parents may want information about what police in the schools will do for a child's education. Invite them to offer suggestions in the planning stages of your program. A brief presentation before the PTA could accomplish this.

Advice Is Cheap, But This Program Can Be, Too

If money came as easily as advice, the next few comments could be eliminated. Funding needn't be an insurmountable problem, though, especially with a broad financial base. Liaison programs can be staffed by police and teachers already employed. In Wichita, for example, the police officers are paid by the police department; the teaching specialist who coordinates the liaison program has a regular teacher contract with the board of education and receives addendum days for summer programs. Smaller communities could easily establish such a program because no new hiring would be required, only a shift in job emphasis on the part of the police. The materials already developed could be adapted with little further effort. Kathy Wilson, in a presentation to the Kansas Conference of Police Chiefs, found strong interest in this type of program.

Volunteer professionals can be used in your program without additional costs. Resource people in Wichita are brought in to lead in-service training

for teachers and officers. John Wilson, a professor at Wichita State Teacher's College, consults on LRE; narcotics officers lecture on drug abuse; and doctors and lawyers are called upon to address a variety of issues from counseling students to children's rights.

Other funding sources, like the Sears Foundation, have been used to develop K-12 curricula in Wichita. Dr. Lawrence Bechtold, the director of the Wichita Curriculum Division of the public schools, said that so many demands are made on his division that the needs of the police-school liaison program cannot always be met. For that reason, the current teaching specialist is attempting to find local funds to expand the materials currently used. Optimist Clubs are one source of funds. The PTA can also be tapped; many parents may well be involved in church groups or civic organizations that could contribute dollars to fund in-service training or assemble more teaching materials.

Effective arguments can be made for the use of local community funds for initiating police-in-the-schools programs, since the community benefits so tangibly from good rapport between students and police officers. But if you go that route, make sure city officials and private donors know specifically what they are paying for. It is useful to isolate the accomplishments of a police-school liaison program from other civic efforts. For example, if your program relies chiefly on police department monies, and ultimately on city funds, try and keep the budget item for your police-school liaison officers separate from the rest of the police department budget. Otherwise, you may have headaches if the police budget is cut. Unless totally committed to a liaison program, a police chief whose staff budget is slashed might drop the program altogether.

Footloose: Pedestrians to Runaways

Curriculum materials were formulated in Wichita after a survey of 155 public school teachers there. Police officers gave input to the expressed interests and the information was printed up. Pedestrian safety, bicycle safety, and "stranger danger" were selected as topics for kindergarten through third grade classes. Youngsters in fourth through sixth grades consider law enforcement and family problems—the difficulties with vandalism, shoplifting and runaways. Material from the Law in a Free Society project is utilized in Wichita as an adjunct to specific topics. In Denver, presentations on narcotics are made in kindergarten classes. Additional topics are field-tested first, then combined with the other curriculum items if they prove successful. The main emphasis in both the Denver and Wichita programs has been on elementary materials.

Once the curriculum has been developed, it is a good idea to put together a packet for teachers, particularly those new to your school system. Com-

petition is acute for the time available to cover many subjects; secondary teachers are often reluctant to release an hour or more for untried presentations. When teachers can see the full range of the police-school program, especially with subject outlines, their reception of your new approach will be better. Efforts in Wichita have resulted in outlines on rape, child abuse, spouse abuse and law enforcement, as well as brainstorming for ideas to teach LRE in language arts classes.

Police have to stay up on law enforcement issues, of course. Police who work in the schools must also acquire teaching skills which will increase their effectiveness in the classroom. The in-service education of liaison officers should encompass 70 to 90 clock-hours of instruction each school year. The Wichita program combines specialists from the school system and the police department to train the participating officers. Sessions focus on improving communication skills, clarifying values and informing the staff about race relations.

Planning is stressed—the least successful efforts have been "off the cuff" sessions. A sloppy job can mean both teachers and students quickly lose interest in further sessions. Preparing your officers with in-service training will help those without teaching backgrounds to realize how important it is to plan ahead.

Summertime, of course, is an ideal time for holding intensive meetings organized for teachers and officers. In Denver, three-day in-service meetings alert the staff to youth problems, like gang activity. Special attention to the laws regarding juvenile prostitution, drugs and child and spouse abuse, is given periodically in these sessions.

Putting the Pieces Together

Once support, funds and curriculum materials have been gathered, scheduling class visits can challenge any coordinator. The coordinator in Wichita has an office at the police headquarters to better monitor the comings and goings of the program staff, whose presentations she schedules. The most important objective is to maintain ongoing, regular contact between the children and the police officers.

A typical involvement for an officer would be three 50-minute sessions spaced over a week to ten days. These sessions are usually devoted to one topic, at least at the elementary level. Fascinated with police equipment—firearms, handcuffs, mace, walkie-talkies—the children receive first-hand explanations during the officer's orientation visit. This introductory session also includes an outline of a patrol officer's responsibilities and time to allow the children to get acquainted with the officer as a person.

The second contact with the officer allows for some review of the highlights of the first visit, but then the particular topic is defined with the of-

ficer telling of first-hand experiences or case histories. The teacher and the officer explore the ideas thoroughly with the students, until the pupils see further study as relevant to their own experiences.

After two visits from an officer, the teacher conducts another session using materials supplied through the coordinator's office. Discussion is focused on the particular subject and questions are gathered for the officer's next visit. The teacher usually meets with the police officer prior to the third session to develop ideas around the children's questions.

The culminating session on a single topic reinforces basic ideas, using more personal experiences of the officer and textbook examples related to the issue.

How can these presentations have even more impact? Most parents are concerned about what goes on in their children's classrooms. It works well to invite the parents to sit in on police presentations in their child's class. These invitations can be sent home with the children preceding the initial visit of the officer to the classroom. Even if some parents cannot come, they will feel more included because of the invitation. You might also consider sending them a subject outline, so they can reinforce the child's new experiences at home. The coordinator of the Wichita program includes parent invitations in the packets which are sent to teachers each year.

Another outreach on the part of the police-school program can be teaching safety to the children serving as safety patrols. In Wichita, the liaison officers organize and monitor the elementary schools' patrols, evaluating performance with the patrol members and, on occasion, awarding certificates of merit for outstanding work. Yet another extra-curricular task of the liaison officers involves addressing the school-related concerns of adult citizens. Who would you petition to have a stoplight placed at a crossing near your neighborhood school? In Wichita, the citizens are able to contact the liaison officer. Other programs include working with block groups to enhance neighborhood safety, and conducting motorcycle and junior traffic courses.

How Does This All Work?

Ideally, the police liaison staff can begin in the elementary schools and continue to work with the students who graduate into secondary schools. This feeder system provides long-term contact both with faculty and young people and a close connection to school principals. However, this work in both elementary and secondary schools involves a lot of running around.

In Denver, nine detectives must each serve about fifteen schools in the city and county; they are also available to private and parochial schools. A similar problem of thinly-spread school officers exists in Wichita. When the program began there, the turnover was high due to burn out, thus

defeating the goal of children getting acquainted with individual police officers. Certainly, an overworked staff is one obvious hazard of tight budgets.

The Denver police in the schools are closely involved with reviewing incidents that occur on school grounds. If a youngster is using drugs at school, for example, the liaison officer will usually meet with the youth, the parent(s), the teacher and perhaps the school nurse and try to resolve the case right there, avoiding the court process and all the trauma that entails. Even during the summer the parents and student are visited at home to insure a thorough follow-through. The officers have diverse backgrounds: some of the men and women speak Spanish. This diversity allows for greater ease in talking with students and their families.

For greatest flexibility, the Denver officers coordinate their schedules with the teachers directly. Usually they arrange only three to four hours a day for formal presentations; they are then free to follow up on students who have had problems and to make informal contacts with others.

Evaluation

Every program is interested in feedback and the effectiveness of the staff's work. Monthly reports, filed with the chief of police and the head of the school system's curriculum division, can help record activities and contacts.

Just to give an idea of the breadth of these programs, here are some figures: Of 46,000 children in the Wichita school district, 15,000 participated in 600 programs offered in 1978-79. In 1979-80, 23,000 students had formal contact with a police officer at least once, and 1700 programs were presented. Most of these encounters, then, were in small groups of 25 students or less. In Denver, 152,000 people (mostly students) met with the liaison officers in 3209 sessions in 1979-80.

Another numerical measure of success can be noted in Denver. In 1979-80, the juvenile division filed only 12 school-related cases after investigating 561 incidents. Many problems were handled in the schools: 515 kids were counseled by liaison officers.

Wichita and Denver police officers, in their work outside of the schools, comment on the improved attitudes of the public. Apparently, children who once avoided contact with police now approach those in uniforms as people. Attitudes have changed on the part of the police officers too. Wichita police seem to understand more fully how the public acquires negative attitudes toward police—how intimidation and fear trigger reactions which counter police goals. Also, the officers found that the teachers' roles were much more difficult than they previously had thought them to be.

Police in the hallways can signal an order-at-any-cost approach to schooling. Yet, close cooperation among teachers, parents, police officers and children lays the foundation for new understanding between law en-

forcement officers and the community. With careful planning and gathered energies, police officers can enter the schools as concerned adults with information and personalities to share, rather than as crisis-intervenors.

Lawyer Involvement: An Essential Ingredient

Ronald A. Gerlach and Daniel A. Goldstein

Local and state bar associations can contribute substantially to the development of law studies programs in secondary and elementary schools. Law professionals continue to remain an underdeveloped or untapped resource—some ready and enthusiastic, others hesitant and questioning, and a few even critical and opposed to participation.

Proponents of bar involvement in law-related education should be prepared to respond to a number of penetrating questions and potential concerns raised by the association's membership or by school personnel. Such questions might include:

- What possible resources can the bar bring to a school's instructional program?
- If the bar should decide to go ahead, how can it best contribute?
- How much is participation likely to cost the bar?
- How will such involvement benefit the bar and its membership?

Diamonds in the Rough

Lawyers have a wealth of legal knowledge, specialized expertise, and real-world experiences to share with students and teachers. The nature of their work makes most practicing attorneys good teachers, who are able to generate genuine interest in their subject area as well as engage in the free exchange of ideas with students and teachers.

In addition, by participating in the education of our youth, lawyers can serve as excellent role models. By representing their profession in the

Ronald A. Gerlach was formerly Director of Law, Youth and Citizenship. The address of the program is Room 322 ED, Bureau of Social Studies, State Education Department, Albany, New York 12234. The phone number of the program (518) 474–5934.

Daniel A. Goldstein is Director of Public Relations of the New York State Bar Association. The Association's address is One Elk Street, Albany, New York 12207. Its phone is (518) 445–1250.

schools, attorneys have a unique opportunity to help students understand how important the values of trust, integrity, and honesty are to the effective operation of a society and its justice system. Moreover, lawyers can demonstrate to young people two basic skills—analytical reasoning and incisive questioning—which most school programs strive to develop in their students.

Finally, by their contact with students and teachers, lawyers help demystify the law. They introduce a human dimension to the law and legal studies that goes beyond the printed word and general theory. They offer living proof that we are a society of laws, and of individuals who—despite human frailties—have helped contribute to the development, growth, and survival of our democratic republic.

In 1974, the New York State Bar Association joined with the New York State Education Department in a cooperative effort known as Law, Youth, and Citizenship (LYC). One thrust of LYC's effort was to promote lawyer involvement in education-based programs for grades K-12. Since then, attorneys in both private and public practice have been enlisted to promote improved law-related instruction in the schools. Making use of their special areas of expertise and wealth of experiences, lawyers throughout New York State have been directly involved in the following: interschool mock trial competitions, classroom resource programs, curriculum development projects, and teacher training workshops and conferences.

The New York State Bar Association has provided a vital link between school programs and the legal profession. More specifically, lawyer involvement in teaching young people about the law has helped to:

- Encourage better communication and cooperation between the school community—its teachers, administrators, and students—and the legal profession.
- Promote more positive attitudes among young people and teachers concerning the law and our courts, as well as heighten their appreciation for the legal profession's immense responsibility to our justice system.

Learning Together in a Context of Fun and Excitement

One activity that the New York State Bar Association has discovered is an excellent vehicle for promoting member involvement in law-related education is the mock trial tournament. The underlying purpose of such a tournament is to improve students' understanding of legal processes, as well as sharpen their verbal and logical skills. Each participating school may enter a six-member team in the tournament. Student team members assume the roles of attorneys, prosecutors, defendant, and witnesses. Other students may serve as backups to members of the main team.

To help them prepare for the event, students are provided with a statement of facts, witness statements, and rules of evidence. Over a two-month period, the teams rehearse their roles and plan strategy with their teacher-coaches.

Lawyer volunteers work with each team, training its members in trial procedures and courtroom demeanor. The actual trial enactment is presided over by another set of attorneys or, wherever possible, real judges. Teams are rated on both the quality of the case they present and the methods used in their presentations.

The contests held in New York State have been greeted with great enthusiasm by students, teachers, and members of the legal profession. In 1980, some 90 school teams and over 1,000 students were involved in seven bar-sponsored tournaments throughout the state. Most courtrooms were filled nearly to capacity with the participating teams' student advisors, well-wishers, and parents. Many of the tournaments received widespread newspaper, TV, and radio coverage. Overall, since 1978, some 150 attorneys and 50 judges have helped make the contests exciting and educationally productive activities, which promise to continue to expand in future years.

A participating teacher-coach commented on the merits of the competition in a recent social studies publication (*Social Science Record*): "The tournament provides a unique opportunity for students of various interests and abilities as well as teachers and members of the bar to work and learn together in a context of fun and excitement." A local newspaper article, reporting on the reflections of a Supreme Court Justice and member of the bar who presided over another mock trial enactment, quoted the judge as saying: "Judges don't often see young people like this in front of us. It renews my faith in the future."

In its effort to develop a format for mock trial tournaments and promote local bar involvement throughout New York State, the state bar association relied heavily upon the work of the National Street Law Institute, 605 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. Both consulting assistance and sample tournament materials were obtained from this source. An excellent resource, the Street Law Institute welcomes inquiries and stands ready to assist other bar associations in planning mock trial tournaments.

Seeing the System from the Point of View of an Insider

Another approach that the New York State Bar Association has used successfully is the Classroom Resource Program. As part of this program, the services of a panel of volunteer attorneys in a community are offered to schools. Participating lawyers are asked to:

- Visit classes for lecture and discussion sessions.

- Assist teachers with law-related classroom simulations and mock trial enactments.
- Lead courthouse tours and visits to other justice-related agencies.
- Serve as resource persons for instructors who have questions about specific cases or points of law, as they relate to classroom instruction.

Since its pilot project in New York City, in 1975, the state bar association has identified a number of essential activities for establishing a classroom resource program in a community and its schools. These are summarized below:

- Make arrangements for an area telephone-contact person at, or affiliated with, a local bar association, community organization, or education institution.
- Canvass local members of the bar for volunteers, and find out their preferences for subject areas and schools.
- Develop a comprehensive card file of volunteer attorneys, cross-indexed according to various areas of substantive law, school preferences, etc.
- Orient volunteer attorneys to the program, with discussion centering on the possible expectations of participants and suitable modes of presentation.
- Prepare announcements or brochures describing the program and distribute them to schools.
- Use a reporting system or evaluation forms to obtain feedback on presentations.

As developed by the New York State Bar, the program is relatively easy to administer and inexpensive to operate. To date, 13 counties throughout New York State have been encouraged by the state bar to establish Classroom Resource Programs. The number of lawyers in the state now participating in these programs exceeds 1,200. These attorneys visit nearly 1,000 secondary and elementary school classes annually. Assuming an average class size of 30, some 30,000 students in New York State have experienced the Classroom Resource Program during a given year.

Available feedback indicates that these resource programs have provided an educational and public relations service of significant value. An attorney from Suffolk County, for example, assessed his presentation as follows:

> I believe this program was worthwhile. Three or four out of 20 were on the edge of their seats. The others were moderately interested. Four or five were obviously bored until I described a dramatic case in which I was involved. By raising my voice and putting diagrams on the blackboard and stressing the real life burdens I was

under in that case, I woke up the back row and a couple of them made comments. Afterward, three or four students remained to chat. One asked if I would "come back tomorrow." The teacher said she was pleased "that you did not talk down to the students." I could ask for no better compliment! My day was made!

The comments of an upstate New York teacher are representative of responses by teachers who have involved lawyers in their classroom instruction: "I am glad there is finally an organized program for teachers to draw from. Will use this next school year earlier in the year and more frequently." A New York City teacher, reflecting on a visit, adds: "A valuable experience was gained by all; Mr. — — — gave important insights into the criminal justice system, especially by his comments about plea-bargaining. An enjoyable, educational experience was had by one and all."

In promoting this program throughout the state, the New York State Bar Association borrowed heavily from the work and experiences of the Constitutional Rights Foundation (1510 Cotner Avenue, Los Angeles, California) and the Center for Law-Related Education (635 Pharmacy Building, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio), which had already conducted successful resource programs. In addition to its program model, CRF is now able to offer interested bar associations a set of instructional packets designed for lawyers to use in their visits to classrooms. Prepared by experienced classroom resource participants from the Los Angeles Bar Association, these materials should prove invaluable to any bar association wishing to establish its own program.

We Both Can Learn from Each Other

Teacher training is another area in which lawyers can offer valuable assistance to law-related education programs. Recognizing that teachers generally have a limited grounding in the law and may have ambivalent feelings about the legal profession's role in American society, the New York State Bar has conducted more than 15 summer workshops on law-related education, as well as numerous one-day in-service conferences for teachers.

Each of these programs has included substantive-law presentations by lawyers on such subjects as the rights of children, juvenile justice, consumer law, and judicial decisionmaking. In most instances, teachers have rated these sessions "good" to "excellent."

To date, these workshops and conferences have given over 1,000 New York State teachers the opportunity to discuss their concerns with attorneys. Moreover, a number of county bar associations have sponsored their own law-related education courses for educators. As one program participant stated: "Why shouldn't lawyers and teachers work together on this? We're both professionals and we both can learn from each other."

These instructional experiences have allowed lawyers to help prepare secondary and elementary school teachers to teach more effectively about the law in their classrooms. Moreover, these meetings between attorneys and teachers have promoted more meaningful dialogue, better understanding, and heightened sensitivity concerning the law, our system of justice, and the education process.

Curriculum Development: A Forbidden and Uncharted Area for Attorneys

Although curriculum development is not a major thrust in its education efforts, the New York State Bar Association has discovered that selective use of the expertise and writing talents of its members can help develop sound, and even innovative, law-related curricula.

In 1978, for example, six New York State attorneys helped write a 61-page *New York State Supplement* to the popular secondary school text *Street Law: A Course in Practical Law* (Mineola, N.Y.: West Publishing Co., 1975). Designed to provide secondary school teachers with specific information about New York State law and procedure and relevant cases, the *Supplement* includes sections on individual rights law, criminal law, family law, consumer law, housing law, and environmental law. The project was conducted under the direct supervision of the state bar in conjunction with the National Street Law Institute. Plans are already under way for revision of the *New York Supplement*.

In 1980, the New York State Bar used the expertise of another New York attorney in preparing a source book on the law and literature. Perhaps on the first source book of its kind on this subject for secondary schools, the collection was designed to help promote the infusion of law-related subject matter into courses outside the traditional social studies curriculum. The *Law and Literature Source Book* is now available for students and teachers from Law, Youth and Citizenship, Room 332 ED, State Education Department, Albany, New York 12234.

$$$'s and Hours: Important Concerns but Worthwhile Contributions

How would it cost another bar association—in both time and money—to replicate New York's programs? Are we talking in the area of six figures? Fortunately, we're not! The New York State Bar's programs are surprisingly inexpensive.

- A local mock trial tournament, with 10 schools participating, can be conducted for about $200-$500. Major costs include duplication of tournament materials (eight sets per school team), printing of certificates of participation for students, and purchase of the

winning team's trophy or plaque. Other (nonessential) expenses could include a dinner or luncheon for participants, gifts for attorney-advisors and teacher-coaches, a token honorarium for the coordinator, etc. The coordinator of this activity, who generally is asked to donate his or her services, should expect to spend about 20–30 hours preparing for and supervising the tourney. A committee of three or four members can and has been used to reduce this work load without hampering the administration of the tournament.

- A classroom resource program requires only modest expenditures of money: printing of an information brochure plus purchase of some sample instructional materials may be all that is required. Instead, the major "costs" of this program are time spent in visits to the classroom and overall coordination of the project. For each visit, for example, an attorney should plan to spend from four to six hours: preparing, traveling to the school, and presenting to the class. Therefore participating attorneys are not usually asked to make more than two or three visits per year. Coordination of the effort is especially time consuming. Someone must be available on a regular basis during specified hours to receive requests and make the necessary arrangements for visits by lawyers to classrooms. This task can be assigned to a secretary in a participating agency or shared among a group of volunteers, such as lawyers' spouses.
- Teacher training costs are perhaps the most variable in terms of actual dollar expenditures. In some cases, the cost of the entire program may be limited to the purchase of some LRE materials and a small honorarium for the coordinator, with both lawyers and teachers donating their time. In others, participating teachers may be awarded a stipend, ranging from $50 per day to $50 per week, while speakers may receive an honorarium of anything from $25 for a half-day panel presentation to $200 for a full day's program. In addition, the costs of travel, lodging, and meals generally have to be assumed in a statewide effort. Coordination of any teacher training activity is perhaps best accomplished through a cooperative effort with the schools.
- Curriculum development work by attorneys is generally done on a pro bono basis. However, significant expenses can be incurred in printing and distributing "finished" materials. Costs can range from several hundred to several thousand dollars, depending on the length of the publication and the number of copies printed. In some instances, a nominal fee may be charged for the publication

to reduce initial costs and permit second and third printings of the material.

The total amount spent on these activities can thus range from a minimal expenditure to a major one. The following will be key factors in determining the dollar costs:

- Size of programs: How receptive are the schools to the activities? Are teachers involved or willing to be involved?
- Association's budget: How much can the bar afford? How much is it willing to contribute?

On the other hand, all these activities require significant commitments of time—a precious commodity to attorneys. Although it can be argued that that's what involvement is all about, organizers need to make a special effort to insure that no one person or small group of members must assume the entire burden. Nothing can cause a project to fail more quickly!

In organizing an activity, it is best to (*a*) clearly set out for prospective participants the maximum amount of time each is expected to contribute, (*b*) recruit as many member volunteers as possible, and (*c*) divide the work among the participants as equitably as possible.

A Closing Note

Since 1975, the New York State Bar Association has sought to involve lawyers in the civics education of young people in a way that enhances students' dents' understanding of the law, promotes more positive feelings regarding the legal profession, and makes the study of law in the classroom a more exciting experience.

A key to the success of the program has been the support and involvement of the schools—administrators, teachers, and students. Advice and assistance from key school personnel must be solicited in advance and used in planning a program. Moreover, feedback and commentary must be obtained from teachers and students on a continuing basis if a program is to remain responsive to the needs of the schools. In essence, a cooperative, not unilateral, effort is the main ingredient that causes a bar-sponsored program to flourish.

Because of the highly positive experiences of its members and the achievements of its programs, the New York State Bar Association remains deeply committed to the concept of lawyer involvement in the citizenship education of young people. The bar continues to seek additional avenues for cooperation between lawyers and the schools, and new ways to improve its established programs. We hope that other bar associations will do likewise.

Volunteers in Law-Related Education

Eleanor S. Barnard

Erma Bombeck, in one of her articles, stated that the volunteer is rapidly disappearing from American life because people who have been devoted, able volunteers have turned "professional," and are being paid for their efforts. True, many volunteers created paid positions for themselves, but in our experience the volunteer has not yet become an endangered species. Men and women often find deep personal satisfaction in making commitments to civic and philanthropic efforts. Their education and work backgrounds enable them to participate in some area of law-related education. This challenge can provide those involved with an added sense of responsibility and power. (Refer to Julie Van Camp's article in this book for additional information on volunteers.)

Plan Before Recruiting

Decide which areas of your project best lend themselves to volunteer assistance before beginning a search for volunteer help. Changes, of course, can be made based on special talents of volunteer workers once they have "come aboard." However, if some specifics are identified in the beginning, all the better. Since learning entirely by doing can cause great frustration for you, your co-workers, and the volunteers, develop a plan for training before seeking volunteers.

An excellent place to begin your search is the local bar association. Since law-related education has become so much a part of the curriculum in many schools, a great number of bar associations have special law education committees. Contact the executive secretary, who may refer you to the appropriate officer. It is usually advantageous to confer personally with these people to discuss your search for volunteers. Try and insert a brief article in the association's publications, stressing the need for volunteers. Many

Eleanor S. Barnard is the Law-Related Education Chairman of the National Lawyers' Wives and Husbands. For more information about that organization's LRE effort, contact her at 228 Woodlawn Avenue, Winnetka, Illinois 60093. The phone is (312) 835–2280 or 835–2785.

lawyers' spouses read these association magazines, too, and a response may come from some of these men and women. Be sure to list the name and telephone number of a contact in your office.

Although most bar associations participate in LRE in some way, some bar groups are not yet fully aware of this field of education. Make an effort to meet with the general membership and introduce them to the special merit of teaching children about the law, and your own project in particular. Mention the need for both lawyers and lay persons as volunteers. You might get a membership roster to make individual contacts with the association members by letter or telephone.

What About Non-Lawyers?

Certain bar associations have non-lawyers on their law education committees who can suggest others in the community who would be happy to contribute their services to LRE. Similar overtures should be made to the state bar association, as their publications have a wider distribution than those of the local bars.

Bar association auxiliaries are a very rich source of volunteer help. Usually the executive secretary of the association can assist you in contacting the proper auxiliary officer. Again, a brief appearance at an association meeting can provide an opportunity to share information about the volunteer needs of your project, and to inform them about what your project goals are.

An important group to contact for help is the National Lawyers Wives and Husbands. As a national association representing nearly every state in the country, NLW&H has been in the forefront of volunteer participation in LRE, through its affiliate groups and in cooperation with the ABA. (Most of these affiliates are auxiliaries to local or state bar associations.) Some of the affiliates already have LRE projects in progress, or are cooperating with bar LRE projects. If made aware of the need for volunteers in your project, they can provide valuable assistance.

You can contact NLW&H by writing the president, Margaret Hogan, 2957 Kalakua Avenue, Honolulu, Hawaii 90815, or the LRE chairman, Eleanor S. Barnard, 228 Woodlawn Avenue, Winnetka, Illinois 60093. The president or LRE chairman will be happy to provide a current list of individual members and affiliate groups across the country. This will give you access to association members in your area. NLW&H also sponsors spouses' affiliate groups in many law schools throughout the country, and such groups may be anxious to participate with your project as volunteers. NLW&H can provide a list of these law school groups, also.

Other possible sources of volunteers are chambers of commerce, local service organizations such as Kiwanis and Lions Clubs, fraternal organizations, law enforcement groups, judges, judicial societies, and the PTA.

While members of such groups may not have considerable time to contribute to an LRE project, they can be extremely helpful in "spreading the gospel" about your LRE work, which can in turn bring greater community support.

Clergy of all faiths can help find volunteers, because today's priests, ministers and rabbis urge their congregants to involve themselves in civic matters, particularly in areas which relate to children and young adults.

Commerce and industry offer other possible pools of volunteer talent. If it can be arranged, have a brief article about LRE inserted in newsletters of various commercial and industrial enterprises. Many people in these establishments work on shifts and seek to do some meaningful work for the community in their free time. Again, be sure to indicate what volunteer assistance is required, the time frames in which the work may be done, and whom to contact.

All the media, television, radio and newspapers, are important in any effort to secure volunteers. An appeal to local television and radio stations could provide an opportunity for someone from your project to appear on a local talk show or community series to give an overview of LRE and your particular project, and to make an appeal for volunteers. If you find this possible, be sure to clearly indicate the name and number of a contact in your office.

Most major newspapers today have educational coordinators whom you may contact to discuss your LRE project and its need for volunteer help. Some may be willing to do a feature article, if you can create a special interest by your own enthusiasm. In addition to major newspapers, some towns have regional or neighborhood papers, whose writers are often eager to publicize local projects.

What Next?

If you have been lucky enough to get a good response to your search for volunteers, some screening will be necessary. Be prepared to do this in your most politic manner. Rejection is frustrating to all of us, and in order not to create ill will for your projects, try to frame any rejections in some positive way. Persons turned away in a cheerful, friendly manner will be inclined to speak positively about LRE and your project among their acquaintances, and could bring you other volunteers whose abilities are more suited to your needs.

Now that you have an eager group willing to help, what can they do? Volunteers can be of special assistance to you in clerical and secretarial areas, once they have become familiar with the routine of your office. Volunteers can effectively raise consciousness within the community once they are familiar with LRE and your project. Lawyers' spouses can serve as

liaisons between spouses' groups, bar associations, the judiciary, and law enforcement groups, because many lawyers' spouses have a broad acquaintance with these organizations.

The perennial dilemma of money—no LRE project *ever* has enough financial backing—can be helped by volunteers who know of smaller foundations not found in directories. They may know and be willing to approach individuals for support. Some of your volunteers may prove to be your best lobbyists for legislative funding.

Volunteers can arrange transportation between schools, the courts and other government agencies when special tours or demonstrations have been scheduled. If properly instructed these same volunteers are excellent docents.

You will certainly be able to think of more places to look for volunteers and ways to use their varied skills and talents. However, the most important thing is to be aware that volunteers are one of the greatest allies of LRE, and that they may still be found in quantity if one really searches for them.

Tapping Law Schools

Lee Arbetman

Most people remember the hectic life of a university student. Classes, a part-time job, exams, reading, library work, and those consultations with hard-to-find professors overload a law student's life, too. The unpredictable schedules and high pressure of academic pursuits mean it's a challenge to pin down professors and students. Still, tapping law schools for law-related education programs may not be as difficult as you think. Law school faculty, students, and facilities can and should be involved in countless ways in support of your law-related education program.

In fact, law schools from coast to coast already participate in exciting LRE activities in their own communities. A recent publication by the Association of American Law Schools, the *Directory on Teaching Law Outside of Law Schools,* devotes one section to school programs. Law school faculty are actively involved in teacher training and curriculum development projects, law students participate in outstanding programs in the public schools, and law school facilities are the site of many LRE conferences and programs. Some of the existing models are described in this article, along with steps to take in initiating law school involvement.

Why Involve Law Students . . .? What Can They Do?

The key to involving law students is understanding how participation in an LRE program can contribute to their training as lawyers. From an academic standpoint, law student participation can be justified in several different ways:

1. It is often said that "the best way to learn the law is to teach it." Law student instructors in LRE classrooms are likely to deepen their understanding of the theory and practice of law.
2. Law students can develop important skills in conflict resolution, oral advocacy, and communication. For example, the ability to communicate the law in an understandable way to non-lawyers

Lee Arbetman is Deputy Director of the National Street Law Institute. The Institute's address is 605 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20001. Its phone is (202) 624–8217.

is necessary to any legal professional. Likewise, they can develop an appreciation of the workings of the legal system as viewed from the perspective of the average citizen.

3. Usually legal professionals view the law of a particular jurisdiction in subject categories, like real estate or communications. Participation in an LRE program affords the law student the opportunity to critically examine law as a whole, the way the public views it.
4. The methodology of the LRE classroom will make law students more adept at analysis and critical thinking. It provides one of law school's few opportunities to examine issues not just from a legal perspective but also from the point of view of public policy, ethics, and practical reality.
5. Law students can acquire a greater sensitivity to the social and legal problems of the young, the poor, the disadvantaged, and the lay public in general.

Increasingly, legal educators are acknowledging that law schools have a responsibility to the community to help improve the legal system through public service efforts and community education projects. A law school's involvement in an LRE project makes law more accessible to laypersons, enhances the law school's reputation in the community, improves the overall public image of the bar, and fulfills the ABA Code of Professional Responsibility's mandate to improve public education about the law.

By going into the schools, law students can help teachers implement lessons which make the law vital to students. For example, when conducting a mock trial, law students can teach the relevant law and train students in courtroom procedure while the classroom teacher can emphasize the basic steps of trial preparation: collecting, analyzing and organizing information; formulating precise questions; and advocating a position in a forceful and effective manner. The law student benefits from the teacher's expertise in teaching; the teacher benefits from the law student's knowledge of legal substance and procedure. Most importantly, the high school students benefit from the team's combined resources.

While social studies teachers conduct most LRE classes, having law students as co-teachers has several distinct advantages. Deeply immersed in the study of law, most law students have a more in-depth knowledge of the law than their cooperating classroom teachers. Enthusiastic law student instructors, often young themselves, seem to relate well to young people. Moreover, law students can serve as important role models for high school students. This is particularly true considering the increase in minority enrollment. It is now possible to involve law students of both sexes, and

every race and ethnic group. Law student involvement also tends to foster a positive attitude toward law and the legal system, especially for youth in inner-city schools.

Besides teaching, law students have developed units of study and localized curriculum. In some cases law students have supervised high school interns or acted as group leaders or instructors in teacher training programs. (For more information on law students and high school interns, see the article by Sally Mahe Ackerly, Elizabeth Benford, and Tom Nazario.)

Models for Law Student Participation

There are many models for law student participation in school LRE programs. Outstanding law student programs have been developed at universities such as Cleveland State, Cornell, Detroit, Georgetown, Loyola of Chicago, Mercer, Notre Dame, Rutgers, San Francisco, St. Louis, Temple, and Yale. The ideas listed below were culled from past experience in a number of states to help start up programs in which law students teach in public schools. However, remember that a successful model is one that works for both your local school system and law school. Thus, don't hesitate to be flexible, innovative, and creative in your use of law students.

1. Informally discuss the possibility of such a program with the law school dean and other influential faculty members.
2. Identify one or more faculty members who may be interested in helping start such a program and at least one who may be willing to direct it (e.g., who would present it for faculty approval and/or conduct seminars for law students).
3. Check on past law-related activities in your local schools. Contact the ABA Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship at 1155 E. 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois or the National Street Law Institute to see if past efforts can be supportive of or complementary to a law student program.
4. Ascertain law student interest. (Calling a meeting of interested students or publishing a notice are two possible methods.) Former teachers who are law students may be valuable persons to recruit early in the project.
5. Meet with school system administrators to secure their support for such a program (superintendent, assistant superintendent, director of social studies, etc.) Having persons with entree to the schools arrange for and accompany you to such a meeting will be helpful. An alternative to this, or a necessary follow-up, is to meet with principals of certain high schools and gain their approval. (Support can consist of verbal or written backing, direct-

ing subordinates to help initiate the program or providing financial assistance such as an agreement to pay for books for high school students.)

6. Follow up meetings with the school system to determine:
   a. the schools which will conduct classes;
   b. the length of the course;
   c. the days of the week and the time;
   d. the grade level of the course;
   e. the teachers, if any, to be paired with law students.
7. Write a proposal to the dean or faculty committees to gain approval for credits. The National Street Law Institute staff may be able to provide sample proposals, to visit law schools, and to meet with the dean and/or the faculty committee to discuss other law schools' experience and rationale for academic credits. Visits to Georgetown or other law schools where a successful program is conducted might also be considered.
8. Determine the necessary budget for a one-year pilot program. Consider expenses of a part-time faculty member, an administrator who also may be the field (or clinical) supervisor, secretarial support, books, and duplication. (It may be that one person can play all three roles of conducting a law school seminar, administering the program and supervising law students.)
9. Secure funding for the pilot. Ascertain the extent of law school willingness to contribute in-kind services and/or funds. If needed, explore the possibility of funding from a bar association, local foundations, locally-based corporations or the state LEAA.
10. Draw up a high school teaching schedule, a law school seminar schedule and begin to prepare state and local supplementary materials.
11. Recruit, interview and accept prospective law students for the program.
12. Conduct pre-service training for law student teachers (at least three weeks before the teaching begins). Teaching techniques should be stressed.
13. Begin teaching in schools.
14. In the second year: Consider expanding services to the school system through teacher training, a lawyer in the classroom program, field trips to courts, summer intern programs in courts and the local legislature, mock trial competitions, etc. Consider expanding the law school project into other areas of teaching law to laypeople, including education of inmates, correctional

officers, adults in the community, juveniles referred from court, or classes in colleges or community colleges or continuing education programs.

At the present time there are over 120,000 students attending the more than 160 accredited law schools in the United States. A number of suggestions have just been made about setting up a teaching program to use these people. A short survey of the major program variations should provide you with some concrete ideas and demonstrate the wide range of possibilities. The extent of law student involvement varies from occasional classroom visits to teaching year-long courses in conjunction with the regular classroom teacher.

The Academic Credit Model

An increasing number of law schools provide academic credit for law student participation in LRE programs. These models vary from law school to law school but most are operated under the auspices of a clinical education program, as a fieldwork requirement of a regular course such as public school law, or as an independent study project.

Many of the credit bearing law school projects are modeled after the District of Columbia's Street Law Project. This program began in 1972 as a cooperative venture between the District of Columbia Public Schools and the Georgetown University Law Center. (For a full discussion of the rationale for and programmatic components of this program and programs based on it, see E.L. O'Brien and L. Arbetman, "A New Clinical Curriculum: Teaching Practical Law to High School Students and Inmates." 29 *Journal of Legal Education* 568, 1978 and E. Dreyfuss, "Street Law." 2 *Perspective* 10, 1978.)

Today at least twenty cities have credit-bearing law student teaching programs. The ingredients of this model include a weekly seminar, focused upon substantive law and innovative teaching techniques, a field component which requires regular teaching in the high schools, and periodic supervision of law student performance by attorneys and educators. For the seminar component of the credit programs to serve the needs of the law students, there must be some degree of uniformity in the curriculum being taught at each participating high school. Teachers can present their LRE content areas in an agreed upon sequence so the seminar can properly prepare the law students.

Invariably the teaching part of the program is compared to lawyer in the classroom programs, described in detail in Ronald Gerlach's and Daniel Goldstein's article. Lawyers can, of course, draw upon a wealth of practical experience in their presentations. Moreover, attorneys are likely to be

available in the numerous communities which have no local law school. However, law students can develop subject matter competence in their law school seminar and, perhaps more importantly, can commit themselves to a regular schedule of classroom appearances for a semester or a year. Last minute court dates or client appointments do not cause law student cancellations.

As law student teaching programs have been replicated across the country, a number of variations have been developed. At the University of Minnesota, law students obtain credit through the school of education and the credit is transferred to the law school. At the University of Detroit, law students and cooperating high school teachers attend a law school seminar which is co-taught by a law professor and an education professor. The law students receive credit toward their degree, and the teachers receive credit from the graduate school of education. At Yale University the program operates as an independent study project. Besides teaching in the schools, law students organize and conduct a seminar, under the guidance of a professor.

A credit-bearing program (unless offered as an independent study) generally must be approved by the law school faculty. In most cases, the faculty curriculum committee must first recommend the program to the faculty as a whole. While this process has sometimes been time-consuming, the credit-bearing program which results has certain advantages. Invariably some type of seminar is required, giving law students an in-depth analysis of *local* laws and procedures, a perspective frequently omitted in the law school curriculum. The seminar and supervision of teaching also introduce elements of continuity and quality control into the program. Finally, a credit-bearing program approved by the faculty probably stands a better chance of long-term institutionalization than a volunteer program.

Moving a law school to modify its curriculum is a formidable undertaking. You probably won't want to do it totally on your own. If you choose that route, ask for help from one of the organizations listed in Box A.

The Volunteer Model

Many law schools have opted for volunteer law student teaching programs. While law student preparation for and participation in classroom teaching tends to be less extensive than in credit-bearing programs, volunteer programs are inexpensive, relatively easy to organize, and permit wide flexibility in satisfying the needs of classroom teachers. Volunteer programs may have an occasional training seminar but there is *not* a need for subject matter uniformity in the cooperating classrooms. Some jurisdictions utilize both approaches (credit and volunteer). In other cases, volun-

BOX A

Organizations That Can Help You

American Association of Law Schools (AALS) can provide information on law schools and a list of faculty members involved in teaching law outside the school.
Contact: AALS
One Dupont Circle
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 296-8851

American Bar Association - Section on Legal Education - can provide information on law schools, law school programs, and law faculty members.
Contact: ABA - Section of Legal Education
1155 East 60th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60637
(312) 947-3918

American Bar Association - Law Student Division - encourages law student projects and activities and can award small amounts of money (i.e. LSSF grants), for programs involving law students.
Contact: ABA - Law Student Division
1155 East 60th Street
Chicago, Illinois 60637
(312) 947-3918

National Street Law Institute (NSLI) can provide information, technical assistance, and funding possibilities for those interested in establishing law student L.R.E. programs.
Contact: National Street Law Institute
605 G Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20001
(202) 624-8217

Phi Alpha Delta Law Fraternity (PAD) - encourages and provides information and assistance to law schools and local fraternity chapters interested in L.R.E. programs.
Contact: Phi Alpha Delta
Juvenile Justice Office
910 17th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20006
(202) 293-2181

teer programs have been intensified and developed into credit programs as law school faculty and administrators have recognized the academic value of the teaching experience.

School systems take advantage of volunteer law students in a variety of ways. For example, students from Boston University Law School travel twice a week to Boston public high schools and team-teach law with high school teachers. In Carlisle, Pennsylvania, law students from Dickinson Law School make presentations and conduct mock trials in a local high school's "Practical Legal Concepts" class. In Birmingham, Alabama, law students at Sanford University School of Law participate in Project Awareness. This project sends law student volunteers into local high school classes

to make presentations on topics requested by the high school social studies teachers. Law student volunteers from Marquette University's Project Outreach, in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, conduct Saturday morning sessions for high school students. This is just a sampling of programs; a more extensive list still wouldn't include informal situations where individual teachers on their own, call upon individual law students.

Law student programs, credit or volunteer, link law students' activities to, and train people for, lawyer-in-the-classroom programs. The law school programs have spawned a cadre of highly committed young attorneys who have, in some instances, fashioned their career decisions around LRE. A number of these new lawyers had formal training in education and teaching experience before they entered law school.

Others have incorporated LRE into more traditional legal careers. Recently, the district attorney in Pueblo, Colorado initiated an LRE program in local high schools. In the pilot phase of the project, he utilized his staff for much of the classroom instruction. To his surprise, two of his seven assistant district attorneys had already taught LRE as part of their law school program. Familiar with the substance and methods of LRE, they took the lead in training their colleagues for the classroom.

Using Law Faculty

Law school faculty can play an important role in LRE programs. For the most part, they work with teachers rather than students. Primarily they can provide substantive legal presentations in teacher training programs. For a presentation on the history or philosophy of our legal system or on a current constitutional law controversy, for example, a law professor will often be the ideal resource person.

In addition to training teachers, law faculty often help with law student programs. Mock trials sometimes draw upon faculty as judges. Local or state LRE projects which produce supplementary materials to update or localize curriculum often ask law faculty to write or edit materials. To locate an interested and interesting faculty member, speak with someone in the dean's office or to a student from the Student Bar Association (SBA). The aforementioned *AALS Directory* also contains a listing of professors involved in teaching law to laypersons.

If your project has not yet involved the law school, you might consider inviting the dean or an influential faculty member to join your project's advisory panel or steering committee. Such a person could serve as your advocate with the law school should you wish to bring law students into area classrooms, use the law library or moot courtroom or find speakers for teacher training or writers for curriculum materials.

Using the Law School Community

Thus far we have suggested several models for utilizing the law school's two major resource groups: law students and law faculty. However, the law school community as a whole can be involved in LRE in a variety of ways.

The law school may, in fact, be an ideal location for teacher training workshops, courses, summer institutes, or other activities. Every law school has a law library and most have conference facilities and a model courtroom. In many instances, local courts and other legal resources are only a walk away. In addition, many law schools have extensive video-tape and film facilities which could be used to screen LRE media or to record and analyze teacher-taught LRE lessons.

Innovative projects are being conducted for the community at various law schools across the country. The Law, Education and Participation (LEAP) program, housed at Temple Law School in Philadelphia, oversees a wide variety of activities including courses for the elderly, workshops on school law for administrators, classes for high school students and teacher training programs for elementary and secondary teachers.

Many law schools invite high school students to serve as jury members in their trial practice programs. Other law schools sponsor law days or community law fairs which give the community an opportunity to learn about the legal system and to meet some of the local lawmakers. Career awareness days, held at some law schools, expose high school students to the various vocational opportunities open to them within the legal system. An interesting and quite successful variation on these themes took place in Washington, D.C. The Black American Law Students Association (BALSA) of Georgetown University Law Center and the D.C. Street Law Project jointly sponsored a high school law forum. The forum consisted of panel discussions on three of the most topical legal issues for young people today: treatment of juvenile offenders as adults, effects of the *Bakke v. California* decision on college admissions and employment, and minor's right to consent to medical care. Each panel included lawyers, law professors, high school students, and representatives from the community.

Special programs, such as those outlined above, can be coordinated with law student organizations such as legal fraternities or the Student Bar Association and the law school dean's office. While planning time and funding for these programs is modest, they can serve as a valuable link between the law school and a local LRE project.

Steps to Take to Involve Law Schools in Your LRE Project

The approach you take when you contact a law school depends on who you are, what you want, and who you know. It is impossible to present a

fool-proof "how to" scheme. The key to success is resourcefulness. If you know a law student, faculty member, administrator, etc., contact that resource for ideas on where to begin. An attorney working with your LRE project who graduated from the law school may be successful in approaching his or her alma mater. If you are a high school teacher, you may want to have your school system or a local LRE project formally contact the law school. Alternatively, you may wish to contact a law student organization such as the Student Bar Association (SBA), the Black American Law Students Association (BALSA), La Raza, or a legal fraternity such as Phi Alpha Delta (PAD). These organizations may be able to help you and can also elicit support among other student organizations, faculty, and administrators to work towards an organized law school-based LRE project.

While student groups may initially appear more approachable and receptive, you should remember that a law student's educational career is seldom longer than three or four years. When student leaders graduate, your project may have to start recruiting from scratch. For this reason, you should always try to involve the faculty and administration as you design your LRE program. In the long run, your project is likely to receive greater benefits if you involve a broad range of participants at the law school. If the faculty and administration are convinced that participation in LRE is consistent with providing legal education for their students, they will work with you to institutionalize the law school's commitment to your program.

However, if your plan is to institute a credit-bearing program, remember that credit is a jealously guarded prerogative of law school faculties. To "sell" a law school faculty on credit, you should seek assistance from a project which has successfully negotiated this hurdle. (Contact the National Street Law Institute for assistance in this regard.)

Many LRE programs involving a law school can be supported without the need to raise outside funds. Law students and faculty can be asked to volunteer time and the law school can be asked to donate its facilities. If the law school is supportive of LRE, it may even reduce a professor's teaching load to enable him or her to conduct a credit-bearing program for law students. While there are certain advantages to outside funding, you should remember that the higher a project's budget, the more difficult it is to sustain over time. Sometimes the lure of one-time "seed" money creates an ambitious program which cannot continue after the initial funds have been spent, because a broad financial base was not created.

A number of law school projects have had considerable success in raising funds for LRE projects and activities. Funding sources for these programs have included national and local foundations, state and local bar associations, and government agencies (such as education, criminal and juvenile justice). Some participating universities and school systems have matched

funds and, in some instances, provided direct cash contributions on an annual contract basis.

For smaller programs, law student organizations can play a significant role. For example, during the 1978-79 academic year, the Student Bar Association at Hamline University School of Law provided $375 for a community education program conducted by volunteer law students at local high schools. The law students applied for and were awarded a matching grant from the American Bar Association's Law School Service Fund (LSSF). It enabled Hamline law students to buy teaching materials and to sponsor field trips for their students with the combined grants. Qualified law schools can apply for LSSF grants ranging from $100 to $1,000. See Box A.

A Process Set in Motion

Law schools across the country are ready to join the growing list of institutions involved in law-related education. The law school may wish to begin on a small scale, but don't be discouraged. Establishing an on-going relationship with a law school takes time. It's an evolutionary process that can begin in a variety of ways—with a phone call or a letter, or at a civic event or cocktail party. Hopefully, recognizing the array of possibilities already in motion across the country today encourages you to initiate and create an appropriate program. Increased law school involvement will enhance the quality and quantity of LRE resources available to your project.

Involving Criminal Justice People

Todd Clark, Marshall Croddy, and Phyllis F. Maxey

Stop and think a minute! How many different types of criminal justice people could benefit the students in your law program? Attorneys, police, and probation officers come to mind almost immediately, but there are many others as well. How about medical examiners from the coroner's office, technicians from police labs, investigators working for the district attorney, highway patrol and state police officers, or representatives from the FBI, the Secret Service, and the Treasury Department? How about a prison warden, a jailer, a ballistics or fingerprint expert, or a criminologist?

One thing that makes law-related education such an exciting field is the wealth of resources available to participating teachers and students; almost no other field of study compares. Criminal justice practitioners, agencies, and arbitrators are in every community, though these human and institutional resources are often untapped.

The underutilization of criminal justice people in education has many explanations. Teachers may feel that too much time is required to contact and arrange for a resource person to visit a class. Others balk at bringing a nonteacher into a classroom situation. Some fear that an outsider might confuse the students or have hidden agendas more akin to indoctrination than to education. Although these concerns are not without grounds, they can be minimized, and the results are worth the risk.

Criminal justice professionals can be exciting classroom visitors. Police officers, district attorneys, probation officers, and court personnel can ex-

Todd Clark is Education Director of the Constitutional Rights Foundation (CRF). Marshall Croddy is an assistant editor with CRF, and Phyllis F. Maxey is project director for CRF's Business in the Classroom program. CRF's address is 1510 Cotner Avenue, Los Angeles, California 90025. Its phone is (213) 473-5091.

pand student knowledge of criminal law and justice with their expertise. For example, suppose students are focusing on the question of search and seizure. From their texts, they learn about the Fourth Amendment, Supreme Court interpretations of it, warrant requirements and exceptions to warrant. All well and good. But imagine the added dimension of a police officer describing what he or she goes through to get a warrant, a stop and frisk experience, or a search that went awry. A district attorney could add a description about the case that got away because of the results of a hearing on a motion to suppress evidence. These insights give meaning to issues that are often lost with a more traditional approach. Complexity and nuance, very real factors in almost any legal situation, become apparent when the human factor is added.

There are other important benefits to be gained by introducing professionals in the field to a class. In our media-centered age, the workings of law enforcement or the courts have been dramatized to such an extent that their portrayal bears little resemblance to reality. Personal interaction with those who work in the system on a daily basis can correct such misimpressions. As a counterbalance, they can explain specific situations which don't appear either in textbooks or on television. Finally, many young people, through prior contacts or peer perception, have unrealistic attitudes about police, judges, and probation officers. Straightforward contact with justice personnel can do much to challenge such attitudes and will leave students with more balanced perceptions.

One of the first tasks in tapping these people is to identify *who* might be interested in working with young people in a law program. The Constitutional Rights Foundation has organized many groups of resource people, in communities across California, for our Youth and the Administration of Justice program. Some of our experiences may prove valuable for you. We begin our contacts with a letter and a phone call to the various criminal justice agencies in a community. The letter we send explains the program, and we also send brochures or flyers that illustrate the approach used in teaching young people about the law. This kind of information will give the community agencies an opportunity to consider what kind of involvement they would like to have in your program, and what your expectations are for their participation. This initial contact should be made by a top-level administrator in the school district, such as the superintendent, who invites representatives from the police department, bar association, parole department, and others to attend a meeting about their possible involvement in the LRE program.

A Hypothetical Meeting with Justice Agencies

Imagine a meeting in which the following people are involved:

- Superintendent of schools
- School principals
- LRE teachers
- Students

- Chief of police
- Sheriff
- Highway patrol officer
- FBI agent
- Lawyer from the bar association
- Parole officer
- Director of youth corrections
- Probation officer
- City attorney
- State's attorney
- Public defender
- Municipal court judge
- Superior court judge
- Legal aid association director
- Director of Halfway House

After a brief description of the LRE program, the superintendent addresses the group: "We appreciate your interest in this vital effort to improve our young people's understanding of the criminal justice system. We want our students to have contact with people in this system so that they understand why it is needed, what it attempts to provide our society, and how it works.

"We would like each of you to introduce yourselves and share with us your reaction to this program, and perhaps what your organization could offer the schools. Let's begin with one of our teachers, Mr. Donaldson."

Mr. Donaldson explains, "I teach social studies at Community High School, and will teach a 'Youth and the Law' course next semester. I am really excited by the opportunity to teach kids something that is practical, needed, and down-to-earth. I have kids in class who have no idea how the courts work or how the legal system affects them and others. I'd like to bring them into a courtroom, a police department, and other places in this community."

The judge speaks next. "Well, I'm Judge Mills of the Municipal Court, and frankly, I support kids learning about the justice system, but I'm not sure I want them coming into my courtroom. They would have to have some respect for the rules of the court, keep quiet, and dress properly."

The director of Halfway House offers his perspective: "I would be delighted to have a chance to work with kids and have them meet some of the residents of Halfway House. I think it is important for them to understand the goals of community corrections, and there's no better way than to actually visit our place."

Through such dialogue, community agency representatives and educators can generate enthusiasm for the LRE project, clear up misunderstandings, and allow the community agencies to set limits and define their role. Some organizations will not be able to participate. Those that are some-

BOX A

YOUTH AND THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

JUSTICE AGENCY RESOURCE FORM

Name of agency_____

Address_____

Liaison or contact person_____

Position_____Telephone_____

Convenient times to call_____

Resources, field experiences, presentations, materials which can be provided by your agency:

_____

_____

Do you have a speakers' bureau? If so, please list name, address and telephone number of the person to contact about speakers.

_____

Additional information that would be helpful for this project:

1. Rules and/or protocol for student dress and behavior:

   _____

2. Hours students could visit your agency:

   _____

3. Procedures for these visitations:

   _____

Please complete this form and return it to:

what hesitant can benefit from the knowledge gained in talking with teachers, students, and administrators at the meeting, as well as hearing what other agencies are going to offer.

Resource Form

School people must be sensitive to the needs of community organizations considering participation. One way that we have succeeded in demonstrating this concern is by using a resource form, which allows each agency to define its involvement in the program and its rules for student visits. See the example in Box A.

After the justice agencies have been contacted and have had an opportunity to learn about your program and your objectives, a resource manual

should be prepared. The manual is a collection of the completed resource forms, indicating what agencies are interested, who the contact person is, and what kind of participation is available from each. The manuals should be in every LRE classroom for the use of both teachers and students.

Involving Students

Students can play a vital role in bringing community agencies into the classroom or in arranging visits to these groups. Using the resource manual, a student can contact the agency and gather information. If the student plans a visit, a written note confirming the visit should be sent to the agency. After the visit, a student can write a thank-you letter from the class, highlighting the benefits of the experience. Students may also update the manual every year. If students are given some of these responsibilities, their research, writing, and speaking skills will be enhanced.

Using a Resource Person

Now that you have people from many different criminal justice agencies interested in coming into the classroom, what can they do besides give lectures? There are many options that we have found to be more successful than lecturing to students. When you are using a simulation or role-playing exercise, the resource person can participate or serve as an observer and discuss the differences and similarities between students' role playing and reality. "Police Patrol" is one of many simulations that encourage this type of interaction between police officers and students who are playing their roles in various situations.

A resource person can be brought in after a simulation to discuss the activity with the students and teacher. Case studies help stimulate dialogue between students and the visitor. Students might prepare cases in which landlords and tenants are in conflict. The resource person receives the cases ahead of time, and then, on the day of the visit, discusses them with the students. The resource person can share his or her knowledge of the law as it applies to situations that interest students.

During these visits, both the adults and the young people can learn from each other if we, as educators, carefully structure the learning experiences. Justice agency representatives will have an opportunity to meet adolescents who are *not* troublemakers. For some, this may be their first opportunity to encounter a more representative group of young people. Students will have an opportunity to talk with these adults and, through role playing and simulations, develop empathy for people who work in the justice system.

Creating a Lawyer-in-the-Classroom Program

Lawyers are an important group who can share their working knowledge

of our constitutional values. When a lawyer visits your class, he or she can provide current information about the law and inform students about local or state statutes that vary from place to place. For example, in the area of landlord-tenant law, there is a great deal of variance from one city to another. Students may be interested in the specific laws that apply to their community. A lawyer can answer their questions and enhance the more general information of textbooks.

When you set up a lawyer-in-the-classroom program, you need to contact school administrators, teachers, and lawyers. But before this step, you need to create a list of topics that relate to the school curriculum. You may wish to work with lawyers and teachers to identify topics or case studies that would provoke an interesting discussion between lawyer and students. A list of topics might include the following:

- Bilingual education and the law.
- Students' First Amendment rights.
- School discipline procedures.
- University admissions policies.
- Contracts and credit.
- Consumer protection.
- Labor disputes.
- Employee rights.
- Sex discrimination in sports.

In addition to discussing the impact of the law on these current topics, a lawyer can join the class as a judge or witness in a mock trial, and participate in discussion afterward. The Constitutional Rights Foundation has used lawyers in this capacity in a citywide mock trial competition. Some lawyers advise the student attorneys in preparing their arguments, and others serve as judges in the mock trials.

Lawyers can be contacted through the local bar association or recruited from individual law firms. An orientation session should be held for attorneys who are interested in participating. Explain the goals of the program and the procedure to be used in contacting them for a class visit. This is also an important time to relate tips on working with students. Several teachers might join you in offering do's and don't's for the attorneys. Many of them may not have had any contact with the junior and senior high schools since they were students. A videotape that illustrates effective and ineffective teaching might be used to make the points listed in Box B.

A secretary should be assigned the task of matching request calls from teachers with attorneys. You will need certain information to facilitate this process. At the lawyers' orientation meeting, ask interested attorneys to fill out a card with their name, law firm, address, phone, and topics of interest

BOX B

SUGGESTED INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES FOR LAWYERS IN THE CLASSROOM

CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS FOUNDATION

1. Springboard. Devise some method of gaining the students' interest. The mere fact that there is an attorney in the room has not proven to be a profitable interest-gaining device. It might be very helpful for the opening remarks to contain a factual hypothetical situation using a likely student experience with the law.

2. Objectivity. The presentation should not constitute an unbending defense of the system as it exists today. The Bar Association feels that credibility will be greatly enhanced if you can convey to the students that there are inequalities within the system, but that reform should be focused on such inequalities.

3. Contemporizing. Show students the present state of law and reform. The law can then be seen as a dynamic, evolutionary force that does respond to the community.

4. Do's and Don't's. In light of the objectives as set forth above, the following is a list of admonitions that should aid you in speaking to students:

   A. Don't:

      1. Lecture at students.
      2. Use multisyllabic prose.
      3. Appear condescending or omniscent.
      4. Be riled at heckling or stubborn unresponsiveness.
      5. Use monotones.

   B. Do:

      1. Prepare yourself adequately.
      2. Encourage student participation.
      3. Keep eye contact.
      4. Maintain your enthusiasm.
      5. Remember you are talking to students 13-17 years old.

THANK YOU FOR VOLUNTEERING AND PARTICIPATING!

to them. If you are setting up a lawyer-in-the-classroom program in a large geographical area, you may want attorneys to indicate the part of the city or county where they would make class visits. Teachers will need to provide the coordinator with the following information: name, school, school address, school and home phone numbers, topic, date of request, time of class, and age of students.

The lawyer-in-the-classroom program is a service to teachers and students. For this valuable source to be used, teachers need to know about it. The Constitutional Rights Foundation has reached teachers in several ways that may be helpful to you. A pamphlet that describes the lawyer-in-

the-classroom program in words and pictures is an effective communication device. A newsletter sent to teachers and lawyers can highlight ways of using lawyers in the classroom and current law-related issues of interest to students. A third approach is an orientation session for teachers in which the program is explained and perhaps a lesson is demonstrated by a lawyer.

All of these communication devices can be more effective if there is support from administrators. School district channels may be slow or complex, but the support of the superintendent, principals, and supervisors is important. After you establish the groundwork for a lawyer-in-the-classroom program, it is nice to know that it will last longer than one year. School administrators can assist in institutionalizing the new program, and in publicising the service to teachers.

Don't expect too much action the first year. The number of teachers who request a lawyer to speak in their classes may be small in the beginning, but it will increase as more learn about the program. The coordinator should keep records of the requests filled and the number of attorneys involved, to assist in planning the next year's program.

Evaluation forms should be sent to both classroom teachers and attorneys. This may be the only way in which the coordinator can assess the effectiveness of the program. There may be a few attorneys whose sophisticated vocabulary or manner of presentation is not suitable for a particular age group. The teacher's evaluation can supply this information. The attorney's comments may offer suggestions for teachers and new topics for the program.

Lawyers are very willing to give their time to this educational program. Teachers have found lawyer-in-the-classroom programs to be an effective way to introduce their students to the workings of the legal system. The program can be a wonderful service to schools by making it easy for teachers to use resource experts in their classrooms.

Planning a Successful Law Day Conference

Another way to enhance any law-related program is to hold a law day conference, at which youth, community members, and experts in wide-ranging fields get together to explore legal topics. Such a conference allows participants to examine special areas of legal practice, and current problems and issues, in a way precluded in most classroom settings. The conference allows presenters to discuss their areas of expertise with a volunteer audience at a convenient time. In the process, both groups benefit.

There is no one structure for a successful law day conference. Conferences can last a full day or half-day. They can encompass general sessions for all participants or use a workshop approach for smaller groups. They can be formulated around a single theme, such as criminal law, or offer a

potpourri of topics dealing with many areas of the law. In short, a law day conference can and should be structured to accommodate the number of participants, the availability and quality of site, and the interests and expertise of those attending.

Each spring for 11 years, in conjunction with the Los Angeles County Bar Association and Los Angeles City and County Schools, the Constitutional Rights Foundation has held a day-long Law Day Conference for area youth. It begins in the morning with a keynote address and continues throughout the day, with morning and afternoon workshop sessions held at the Los Angeles County Courthouse. Schools provide transportation and lunches for the 1,500-2,000 students who attend. What follows are suggestions, based on our experience, for organizing a law day conference on this or a smaller scale.

Community participation is essential for a successful law day program. One way to ensure broad-based participation is to identify groups to cosponsor the event. Local bar associations, superintendents of schools, and community service and youth groups are likely candidates for this role. They often can help in planning, identifying resources, and facilitating site selection.

It is also helpful to meet with students, teachers, lawyers, judges, and other community people to gather suggestions for conference and workshop topics. This step can help you avoid unpleasant surprises when the workshop you thought would be so interesting gets bombed at the box office.

Workshops should be designed to give students an opportunity to:

- Learn from justice system professionals, government officials, community activists, and others;
- Question those adult professionals regarding youth concerns; and
- Participate in workshops as panelists, moderators, role players, and mock trial participants. To accomplish these goals, presentations should emphasize audience involvement. Discussions, role playing and simulations, audiovisual presentations should be encouraged.

The next major concern is site selection. As mentioned above, community input can facilitate this process. Likely sites, depending on your anticipated turnout, include courthouses, school or university campuses, community centers, and government buildings. Of these possibilities, courthouses are perhaps the best suited. Empty courtrooms make handy workshop locations, and the trappings enhance the ambience.

It is a good idea to contact the courthouse early to schedule your event and to deal with any reluctance your proposal may engender. Although initial reaction on the part of court personnel may be less than enthusiastic, careful explanation of the purpose and organization of the event can

go a long way toward assuring cooperation. It is also helpful to involve judges in this process.

The next major concern is program and presenters. Begin contacting people to be on panels or workshops as soon as the conference date and site are set. If you plan numerous workshops, you should begin this process three to four months before the conference date. Limit your panels to three or four speakers at the most. Choose the format and possible topics before you call, so that you can give speakers a good idea of how the sessions will be run. Assign a moderator to each panel or workshop, to introduce panel members and facilitate the session. The moderators should be encouraged to call each panel member prior to the conference so that everyone knows the format of the session. Also, send each speaker a confirmation letter, describing the conference, the name of the workshop or presentation, and any important details. Send a second letter about two weeks before the conference with details on parking, lunches, and who the other panel members will be, including phone numbers.

Finalize the number of workshops you wish to hold, the length of the conference, and the times for the sessions. Keep in mind the number of people you expect to attend.

If a keynote speaker is in your plans, begin the search early. Selection should be based on experience in relating to youth and on the interests of youthful listeners. The keynote speaker can also be important in publicizing the event.

Once the program is finalized, begin publicizing the event. Strategies might include:

- Designing a flyer to announce the conference. It should list most of the workshops and the date, time, place, and keynote speaker (if you have the name early enough), and should be distributed at least two months prior to the conference. This will allow time to recruit more people with a second mailing, follow-up phone calls, etc.
- Publicizing the conference in local bar association publications, school announcements, and all media sources possible.

While arranging publicity, it is a good idea to design a program for use by all participants on the day of the conference. A well-designed program can limit confusion, especially if many workshops are to be held. Try to have the program one week before the conference so that those attending can prepare in advance for the presentations they choose to attend.

As the day of the conference approaches, contact the management of the site to assign room numbers for workshops and prepare the site. If courtrooms are to be used, ask that all sensitive materials (i.e., jury books, evidence, and documents) are secured. Also, arrange for any needed audiovisual equipment and find out how it can be set up. Snags often develop in

this area, so make sure that a troubleshooter is available on the day of the conference when the lights are out, the projector switch is flipped, and nothing happens.

Set up a schedule with specific duties for staff members, teachers, or community people assisting in registration, signing in speakers, and giving directions.

On the day before the conference, it is a good idea to visit the site to post signs marking parking, registration location, and the rooms scheduled for use. This is especially important if the site is part of a larger complex.

If these preparations seem overly elaborate for your situation, don't despair. Law day conferences can be scaled to meet your requirements and budget. Costs of the model described above might include: fees for use of the facilities, transportation of students, lunches, teacher supervision time, and staff costs. However, with planning and the participation of various community groups, these costs can be minimized or in some cases eliminated completely. Law day conferences are, after all, for the benefit of the community, and, in our experience, schools, individuals, and community organizations are often willing to donate time and resources to make them a success.

Should you have any further questions on law programs, please feel free to contact us at this address given in the author identification on the first page of this article.

Law-Related Externships for High School Students

Sally Mahe Ackerly, Elizabeth Benford and Tom Nazario

When you were in high school, what classes were available? Were the course offerings relevant and interesting to you? Even ten years ago, the selection of subjects in secondary schools was pretty limited. Since 1971, though, high school students in some areas have been able to choose a class in street law – a welcome addition to ordinary school fare. A recent variation on the course was developed in San Francisco: a legal field studies program for high school seniors. Does this sound like something you'd like to incorporate into your local high school?

From Georgetown to San Francisco

The San Francisco Street Law Project is based on the program developed at Georgetown University. Fifteen cities now have ongoing projects which provide inner-city high school kids with a working knowledge of their rights in four areas: family law, consumer law, landlord/tenant law and criminal law. As presently taught, the course runs for a semester. Law students team up with high school civics teachers under the sponsorship of the National Street Law Institute.

Students in these classes responded enthusiastically, and were frequently motivated to embark on law-related careers. What else could be done to encourage these young people? How could we insure that their interest would not flag? In San Francisco, we started an extern program. This experimental component allows high school seniors to work 10 hours a week in law-related agencies for one semester. In addition to the work experience, the students attend seminars once every two weeks. They receive high school credit but no money for following through on this commitment.

Sally Mahe Ackerly, Elizabeth Benford, and Tom Nazario work with the San Francisco Street Law Program. The program's address is University of San Francisco Law School, Kendrick Hall, San Francisco, California 94117. Its phone is (415) 666-6832.

From San Francisco to Oakland

For two years our extern program flourished in San Francisco. Students placed in a job had day-to-day contact with people working in a legal field, and learned by doing. Students acquired job skills and met community people who could serve as positive role models. So, with a good thing already going, we extended our program to Oakland, with financial help from the Phi Alpha Delta National Legal Fraternity. What follows is our story of the joys and sorrows which characterized the first year of the Oakland Extern Program: some how-to's, some do's and a few don'ts.

Here are some questions we asked ourselves as we contemplated starting an extern program in Oakland:

1. What's our best strategy for getting the program into the schools?
2. How can we develop agency placements? What types of agencies are most appropriate for our purposes?
3. What type of students do we want to include and how can we recruit these students?
4. What type of organizational structure and incentives should the program have?
5. Once underway, how should the program evolve?

The following sections will describe how we went about answering these questions.

School District Approval

Right off, we were faced with a choice. Did we want to try the program out in a small, self-contained way, as a class project in one or two schools or as an extra-credit component of a civics class? Or did we want to work through the Oakland School Board, and with their approval take our program to all Oakland schools?

The small-scale effort had definite advantages, including the chance to build a track record and a support group before approaching the school board. However, we chose to go to the Oakland School Board from the outset. We already had two years of experience in San Francisco schools, a number of satisfied agencies and students, and numerous testimonials to show to the school board. We also had the staunch support of the head of social studies for the Oakland School District, herself a firm believer in independent studies and skills training.

The Oakland School Board found our track record persuasive and passed a resolution endorsing the program. The enthusiastic social studies head worked out the details. Independent study credit was offered to students who successfully completed the legal field studies course. In other words, the credit was like any other one-semester elective course; it did not offer the incentive it could have had if our course had been a requirement.

Finding Agencies

Once the basics of the field study were established, we began the search for law-related agencies that could offer students placement. In Oakland, we contacted agencies similar to those that had worked well with us in San Francisco. There, the more successful placements had been in legislative offices, community legal service agencies and independent organizations involved in legal issues, such as Amnesty International. Placing students in conventional law firms in San Francisco had not been successful. Work in most firms was either routinized or too specialized for high school students. Also, because of heavy workloads, firms found it difficult to give the necessary time to a high school extern.

We made initial inquiries by telephone. If there was mutual interest, we scheduled an appointment with the director to explain the details of our program. Participating agencies commit themselves to supervise the work of a student extern for ten hours a week. They appoint a supervisor to be directly responsible for the learning experiences of a student. That person designates responsibilities for the student and offers opportunities for special learning situations. These special events, like a trip to a trial or the observation of an interview between an agency staff member and a client, mean the student gains a better idea of the work of the whole agency.

While outlining the specifics of the field study, we also found out as much as possible about each interested agency. By getting a "feel" for the office or agency through conversation with the director or other staff, we assessed whether or not the office could provide a suitable and rewarding placement for a high school student. An "Agency Interview Sheet," a copy of which is in Box A, was used to record details on each agency. The agencies which agreed to participate specified their needs and we made note of particular characteristics about certain placements. Some agencies could only use students who can type, others wanted bilingual students. In some cases, we found an agency eager to participate, but with little idea as to how best to utilize a high school student. With a little brainstorming we offered suggestions to these groups; usually it was a matter of re-organizing tasks to better share the workload.

Whatever the circumstances of the participating agencies, the more you know about what they do, the more likely you are to have satisfied externs and supervisors. This information helps match students to agencies, and enables you to "sell" potential placements to student candidates.

Agency personnel were usually very helpful in suggesting other contacts. This rather random approach to acquiring agencies over a three-month period resulted in the collection of law-related agencies listed in Box B.

Upon Reflection

The job of drumming up placements for students was fun, frustrating, and time-consuming. When we started in Oakland, we didn't have many contacts and knew little about the city's resources. The fun part was uncovering extremely interesting law-related agencies and meeting the array of people who staffed them. Imagine bolting down a greasy hot dog with a municipal judge during his 15 minute lunch break at the corner cafe. The judge expressed concern that a high school student could totally upset the computer which handled the county criminal records, but then became enthused with the idea of personally helping one student learn about the law.

BOX A

Extern/Agency Interview Sheet

Agency: Judicare

Address: 5904 Foothill / Foothill + Seminary

Phone: 568-7988

Contact/Supervisor: Eileen Harris

Nature of agency: A legal aid agency, refer clients to attorneys for $25 an hour for clients who don't qualify for legal aid; Client outreach program

Summary of functions: Counsel + refer poor people with legal problems

Possible student duties: screening phone calls, clerical duties, prepare legal forms.

Schedule possibilities (morning/afternoon, hours which are most or least advantageous): 10:00 AM. — 5:00 p.m.

Skills (note "required" vs. "preferred"; i.e. language, office): typing preferred, interest

Student characteristics preferred (i.e. third world student):

Interviewers' evaluation/summary: good placement, storefront legal office, close to variety of civil legal problems poor people have, friendly atmosphere; currently in unstable financial condition.

BOX B

OAKLAND AGENCIES

Asian Law Caucus:	Provides legal assistance to the Asian community. Student will conduct interviews. Prefer bilingual in Chinese or Tagalog.
Assemblyman Bates:	General office operations, serving needs of Oakland constituents.
Bay Area Center for Law and the Deaf:	Students will learn sign language and how to communicate with deaf people by telephone. Prefer hearing impaired or with relatives who are deaf.
Alameda County Consumer Council:	Walk-in assistance and workshops on consumer rights and problems.
Children's Advocacy Center:	Help trained advocates with students' and children's rights cases.
Congressman Dellums:	Handle problems of local constituents. Relay information to Washington, D.C. office.
Supervisor George:	Special needs and help projects in health, law and social services of county constituents.
Assemblyman Harris:	Assist in bill filing, questionnaire tabulating and newspaper clipping.
Judicare Legal Referral Service:	Screen phone calls, help refer clients with civil legal problems to attorneys.
Judge MacDonald:	Assist County Clerk, observe cases and discuss them with judge.
Oakland Citizens Committee for Urban Renewal (OCCUR):	Resource recovery and recycling agency, proposal writing.
Congressman Stark:	Assist staff with constituent.

The frustration came with spending a lot of time and energy in the search for agencies and often getting nowhere. Other disappointments occurred when agencies which had made a commitment to the program dropped out, usually due to staff turnover or mismanagement. These inevitable changes and upsets within agencies took their toll on our hard-won student placements.

Recruiting Students

Involving students in our program had its ups and downs, too. When a new course offering is added to the available options, students have no idea

from friends or older brothers or sisters what they might be getting into. So, we decided to recruit in all five Oakland high schools offering a street law course, hoping to fill our 20 placements. Since many students have extracurricular activities and paying jobs, we expected competition. We began in late fall, aiming to begin both the field study and the seminar in February, when the second semester started.

To get the word out to the students, we "blitzed" law and government classes at each of the five schools. Social studies department heads and teachers of upper level law and government courses arranged for us to visit classes to explain the externship program. We passed out application forms, like the one in Box C. We also posted fliers on bulletin boards and included announcements in each school's daily bulletin.

The applications from interested students were collected from the classes by the department head: We got 28.

BOX C

Street Law Extern Project
University of San Francisco School of Law
Student Extern Application

NAME_____ RACE_____

ADDRESS_____ LANGUAGE(S) SPOKEN_____

_____ If other than English:
LEVEL OF ABILITY_____

PHONE:_____ SPECIAL SKILLS OR
INTERESTS:

BIRTHDATE: ____ ____ ____
mo. day yr. _____

GRADE_____ _____

PREVIOUS WORK EXPERIENCE

Employer:_____

Type of Job:_____

VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE, PLEASE EXPLAIN _____

OFFICE SKILLS: Filing _____
Typing _____ wpm _____
Machines _____
Other skills _____

Do you prefer any particular type of community or legal work? Explain. _____

Would you like to work with a particular group of people? (i.e. age group, racial group) Explain. _____

Why are you interested in doing community and/or law related work? _____

Interviews

After our publicity efforts, we scheduled interviews with the students who had filled out applications. Two of us went to each high school for about half a day to conduct the meetings with students. After getting the applications from the coordinating teacher, we each looked over the students' written comments before interviewing them individually. Students were excused from their law or government class to meet with us.

We were quite informal: We focused on the student's previous experience, extracurricular interests and career ideas. We asked about which of the available placements intrigued the student. We also had to consider the transportation arrangements. Oakland is a vast metropolitan area and our placements were scattered all over the city. Most students had to rely on public transportation, so we tried to arrange situations easily accessible from their schools.

At this stage we weren't trying to weed anyone out. The interviews did have that effect in a few cases, however. Some students realized, as we talked with them, that they weren't interested in any of the placements we had available and some were looking for paying jobs. We did wind up rejecting four of the applicants, mainly because of scheduling problems. Each of them received a personal note, explaining why he or she had not been placed in the program.

Every student had made at least two choices of agencies. We were able, in almost every case, to tentatively place each one at an agency he or she had selected. We often found ourselves suggesting particular placements to students, based on a quick assessment of a student's skills and interests. (Obviously, you don't send a non-typist to an agency which has specified the need for typing skills.)

As we discussed the available placements, we emphasized that, as with most jobs, the routine and repetitious aspects would tend to outweigh the glamorous ones. We wanted to insure that students had a comprehensive sense of what they were getting into as well as to guard against unrealistic expectations.

Some of the students were extremely shy, answering in monosyllables. Others were quite self-possessed, clearly familiar with the interviewing process. We tended to spend more time with the reticent students, mainly in an attempt to draw them out and reassure them, but also to prepare them for their subsequent agency interviews—at least to the point of feeling able to volunteer information about themselves.

Student Visits to the Agencies

We notified the students who had been accepted and arranged for agency visits. We thought it best to do this scheduling ourselves, as it gave

us a chance to give the supervisors a thumbnail sketch of the students to be interviewed. We reminded the supervisors that they had the final say and were free to reject a student after the interview.

No students were turned away from an agency on the basis of an interview. Before sending the students off to take their chances at the various agencies, we held a seminar on interviewing.

This stage seemed to be a watershed. Some students dropped out of the program; one supervisor never got back in touch with a student about starting work. That supervisor explained that she had changed her mind, deciding she didn't have time to work with a high school student.

Seminars

The field study portion of our externship program was all set: Students had found positions in the participating agencies. The academic component was the seminar. We held 10 of these bi-weekly. The schedule appears in Box D. The school district required that we provide a curriculum syllabus of the seminar sessions, including skills we hoped to develop with the students. In order to satisfy this requirement, we drew up a seminar

BOX D

Independent Legal Studies

Seminar Schedule

February 6, 1980	Orientation
February 7, 1980	Interviewing skills
February 13, 1980	Office skills and responsibilities
February 27, 1980	How your office fits in to the legal system
March 12, 1980	Reports on work experience Turn in first month journals
March 26, 1980	SPRING BREAK
April 9, 1980	Overview of the court system Introduction to legal research
April 23, 1980	Guest speaker on jobs in the legal field Turn in journals
May 7, 1980	Reports on work experience: political candidates
May 21, 1980	Design a brochure for your agency
June 4, 1980	Last meeting Evaluation of program and agencies Turn in reports and journals

schedule which combined both practical and academic aspects. Attendance was mandatory because the students were receiving social studies credit.

The first two seminars were held a day apart and were designed to let the students get to know each other a little and to work out some of their pre-interview anxieties. We knew they'd be shy of each other, coming, as they did, from widely divergent academic and social backgrounds. On the day of the first seminar, five students showed up at the appointed time. Two more arrived within the next 15 minutes. Rather than keep everyone waiting, we made the decision to pass out a few written materials to the students who had come, to give a very short talk about the program and to field any questions. Most of the questions were about the necessity for journal writing—an unattractive aspect of the program to a number of students. After the first seven had left, others straggled in, one at a time. They also received their papers and asked a few questions.

The next day's seminar, which featured role-playing a job interview, had spotty attendance, too. A few students showed up, participated in the role-play, got their interview dates, and left. Within the next hour others had shown up, but never in sufficient numbers to redo the role-play.

By the third seminar it was clear that a core of students would arrive on time and would participate and be interested in whatever the discussion topic was. Others would fail to show up, come late and leave early, or call with stories of family disasters. As the core group began to get used to each other and loosen up enough to talk, the seminars became more and more topical. We discussed the draft and draft protest against a backdrop of First Amendment freedom of expression. We discussed informed voting and local politics.

Our seminar experience taught us a few things which may help you in your efforts. A set of objectives for the seminar will help guide the sessions and unify the end results. Such objectives aid your flexibility, too, for if you know where you're going, you can gauge choices you must make at the last minute against a few general aims. Students will help you direct the seminar: Some may prefer taking trips to lawyers' offices and courtrooms; others may want discussion groups and research projects. Seminars seem to involve a certain amount of unpredictability and spontaneity.

Although students understood that attendance was mandatory and punctuality was appreciated, scattered attendance continued to be an unresolved problem.

Looking Back: Some Do's and Don'ts

The approach we took for the Oakland school system had the advantage of offering credit to students in the program. This acted as an incentive to

students and allowed for closer supervision of their work. The bi-weekly seminars, conducted by a law student, featured group problem-solving and an analysis of the legal system as a whole. The students also worked eight to ten hours per week, kept journals of their experiences and submitted reports at the end of the semester.

The extern program could function as an extracurricular activity, jointly sponsored by a civics teacher and a law student. Externs could work at their chosen agencies a minimum of five hours a week and then meet with a civics teacher and a law student to discuss and evaluate the work experience. This model avoids negotiating for school credit, yet still provides students with the chance to gain legal experience.

Whatever your set-up, a significant factor determining a student's experience of externing is the care and interest given by their professional co-workers. A fancy or impressive job is not as influential as a caring individual helping to give a young person motivation, confidence and direction.

Recruiting style is more important than you might think. Our recruitment elicited a cross-section of students, varying in economic status, academic accomplishment, personality, career direction, and race, but we felt our procedure lacked a personal touch. Teachers who know the students better than outsiders can personally encourage those who would most benefit from the program. Those needing boosts to participate demand extensive support, and prompting from teachers is vital.

Each year some externs from the Oakland and San Francisco programs are offered part-time or full-time paying jobs and others continue to volunteer at an agency on their own time. Students reveal that they've learned more about the law and the legal system during their one semester as externs than they ever learned in the classroom. Externs say they want to pursue legal careers. Ongoing bonds of friendship are often established between the student and the agency staff.

Perhaps the hardest lesson to accept is that not every placement has a success story. Along the way agencies may shift personnel or lose their funding and drop out of the program. Students who seemed particularly enthusiastic and motivated during the interview don't continue. Usually the reasons could not have been foreseen, but still, personal follow-up is essential, not only to see that students are fulfilling their commitments, but also to boost morale.

Strong contacts within each school can effectively recruit and follow-up on the students during their work experience. Career centers can provide assistance, either by publicizing the externship program with their offerings, or by using their staff for recruitment. These centers sometimes have funds available, so students could receive stipends for their work.

After the program gets a foothold and a number of agencies remain in-

terested in student externs, the legal field studies course should be included in regular course registration materials. Once institutionalized, a social studies or civics teacher can direct the externs as part of his or her regular course load.

Students at Work

These field studies can sound burdensome—removed from reach by many hurdles and hassles. The personal stories are what foster the energy to develop opportunities for students. Here's a sampling of student experiences:

- Nel, the supervisor at a congressman's office, says Dave and Allison fit in so well it feels like they've been there forever.
- Mai has only been in the United States a year. She speaks both Cantonese and Mandarin but her English was so tentative at the time of her interview that her bilingual teacher offered to translate. Her supervisor at the Asian Law Caucus is delighted with her language ability and reports that her English has improved to the point where she can speak it fluently on the phone.
- Kevin, who's working with a neighborhood recycling project, is organizing recycling efforts at his high school, to benefit his athletic club. He's also working on lining up summer jobs with the project.
- Sabrina cried when she told us she was leaving the program. She's an outstanding athlete, so needed to schedule her work time in the morning. But: "Half the time no one ever got there to open the office until just about when I had to leave for school. I never got to do anything except answer phones. It's not what I thought it would be."
- Cynthia does a lot of phone counseling and screening at a legal referral service. Her supervisor knows she's interested in criminal law, so she taught Cynthia how to do legal research and gave her a mock case to figure out how to defend.
- David has learned how to run the Corpus computer, which retrieves the complete criminal history (including aliases) of anyone that the judge wants to check up on before he arraigns or sentences them. David is also going to spend a month each with the district attorney and the public defender.
- Angela and Tennyson go to consumer education meetings at high schools and senior centers to speak about consumer rights. Both of them have been offered paying summer jobs.

These accounts indicate that, for most students, the externship program has been an enriching, unusual experience. High school seniors venture away from the classroom and learn new skills, acquire some direction and

raise different questions. For the most part, it is their commitment, their enthusiasm, which provides the impetus for expanding externing opportunities.

The First Step toward Community Involvement: How to Involve the Schools

Nancy I. Brown

In the rich land of northern Mississippi, several school districts have recently been part of a successful pilot project in law-related education--a project that we hope will extend statewide. Persons in the community, legal personnel, school administrators, teachers, and participating students made a tremendous commitment to the project. I believe that such *united* support has been crucial to its success. But if the school administrators (from superintendents to principals) had not given their support, the project would never have reached first base. What caused this commitment to develop and continue for the duration of the project? What made school superintendents "welcome the project with open arms"? What made other superintendents contact us and request to be a part of future plans? This article will attempt to share a bit of the nuts and bolts of the cooperative commitment.

Community involvement programs in law-related education must begin in the schools. Project initiators must involve the school community first. Our schools complement and reinforce many of the values and attitudes provided by the family, but it is the school that assumes the task of formal citizenship training. The school provides a rich environment in which citizenship knowledge, experience, and reflection can be consciously integrated. It is the school environment that provides unlimited opportunities for participation and experimentation in citizenship activities, although the whole community should be involved and will be the ultimate benefactor.

A successful project needs understanding, planning, direction, and support. Good results are not automatic. There must be adequate financial sup-

Nancy I. Brown is Social Studies Consultant of the Mississippi State Department of Education. To find out more about LRE in Mississippi, contact her at the Mississippi State Department of Education, P.O. Box 771, Jackson, Mississippi 39205. Her phone is (601) 354-6955.

port, leadership, communication, and human relations. School districts can usually supplement a pilot community involvement project by exploring various sources of community support, such as service clubs, individuals, business and industrial organizations, and legal agencies. In our project, in more than one instance sources contacted the school to offer their services. Many projects fall short of ultimate success because they lack committed leadership. The development of leadership ability is one of the major goals of law-related education programs. Each individual has leadership potential. If this potential is nurtured and encouraged in project participants, the school community will find ways to solidify the pilot project.

Most important, there must be effective communication—within the school, within the community, and between the school and the community. Our project involved eight separate school districts, one located on the state's eastern boundary and another on the state's western boundary, with an intervening distance of approximately 180 miles. Communication was therefore especially important, but it is essential to any project. Good communication results from effective administrative practices. The astute school administrator realizes that he/she is his/her own best advocate. All school personnel should be represented in planning the project. School administrators should consider themselves as partners with other staff members and as consultants rather than arbitrary leaders. The support of fellow teachers and staff members is essential, for their willingness to support the project indicates to the students that it is important. Participation on an equal basis is one of the best means of building human relations.

Communicating with School Administrators

Expanding the curriculum into any area of concern seldom happens as expected. The most common explanation for failure is inadequate communication inside and outside the project's domains. The power structure of the school district must receive the initial communication, and that first meeting should be a *personal* contact. How does one convince local school administrators that this is "the" project for their school system? In my initial meetings with school superintendents, I found it very effective to present a one-page thumbnail sketch of the project, along with a correlation of our project with similar projects in other states. The initiator must use logic to get potential participants to see the need for expanding the curriculum to include an emphasis on law-related education. Data—hard, cold facts and figures about goals for the project—always provide the bottom line. If you can show that the project will help eliminate many of the day-to-day problems encountered by every school administrator, such as delinquency and school dropouts, you've got your foot in the door.

You can then emphasize that all phases of life can be improved and

enriched through an active law-related education program. The prevention, reduction, and control of crime and delinquency are responsibilities of our total society. Legislation is necessary, but legislation is not necessarily a good teacher. The use of punishment does not deter crime. In order for crime and delinquency rates to be decreased, offenders and potential offenders must want to change their behavior. Such a desire depends primarily upon education and upon learning to have faith in others. A good point to share with administrators is that money spent for education can eliminate spending a greater amount of money for detention.

The project must be open ended and flexible. From the very beginning, the individual school system must know that it has the power to adapt the project to meet local needs. The culture of the community must be reflected in the project and its curriculum. I asked each school district to take the project's overall goals and anticipated results and to develop a list of local goals and anticipated results. With this checklist, the individual school district could easily evaluate its progress and also compare and share developments with other participating districts. It's important to stress the individuality of the program. Feedback should be sought at various stages. School districts should be encouraged to examine their progress continuously and take stock of their actions in view of their objectives.

A key question asked by 99 percent of the participating school superintendents was, Is this a here-today, gone-tomorrow project? Is this school district going to commit staff development time, personnel, in-service time, schedules, etc., for a one-shot attempt and then never hear from the project or state coordinator again? Here is where you really have to put your name and reputation on the line. The experts tell us that, in most cases, it takes at least two years for a curriculum innovation to reach a level of routine use. Don't rush it; take it one step at a time to ensure its solidarity. Honesty and plain talk are keys to long-term survival. Law-related education does not presume to *give* people ready-made solutions to their problems. It does attempt to help people *learn* how to solve their own problems.

Communicating with Teachers

I've discussed the value of continual top-level communication, but communication must involve *every* participant in the project. Teachers must want to be a part of the project—it must never be an ultimatum. Successful implementation will take place if conditions are made sufficiently appealing to the implementors. We tried to provide release time, monetary support, and professional credit for all the teacher participants. We tried to let our project teachers know that they were an elite group, setting the stage for an exciting curriculum development in our state. It is essential to provide adequate staff development opportunities. Never assume that the

teachers have the expertise to implement the project. There should be a continuing series of sharing sessions at various intervals in the project.

But just getting together is not enough. There must be a genuine dialogue among all participants. School superintendents and principals were encouraged to attend and participate in the various staff development days. It was encouraging to see these administrators working side by side with their teachers. Teachers were able to communicate their needs to their superintendent and vice versa. Decisions were made by all those involved in the project. Everyone knew that he or she had a voice. Project members (administrators and/or teachers) can provide input that is realistic and practical and often suggest ideas that may have been overlooked in the initial planning. Morale may improve when ideas that originate from within the project are translated into reality. By involving everyone, you can strengthen the organizational structure and thereby make events more predictable. We developed and distributed a Contact Sheet, which included the names, addresses, and phone numbers of every participant in the project. This gave *everyone* an open avenue of communication with every other participant. This Contact Sheet was used constantly during the project's operation.

Don't forget to keep fellow teachers and other staff members informed of what you are up to. Make a special effort to reach colleagues in other schools. Ignorant or hostile high school staff members may undermine many of the good things being done in middle schools. On the other hand, knowledgeable middle school teachers can introduce certain concepts to students before they reach the high school level, and high school teachers can reinforce and continue the concept development of a middle school project. To aid this communication, our project teachers were encouraged to conduct awareness sessions not only at their individual faculty meetings but also at district-wide faculty meetings. Everyone should be involved according to his or her interests and talents.

Although there is no substitute for personal contact, it can be supplemented by memos, bulletins, letters, newsletters, bulletin boards, and school newspaper articles. Representatives of several of the districts participating in our project appeared on local radio and television talk shows. This was a tremendous asset in promoting the project.

Communicating with Students

The purpose of education is to provide students with knowledge, skills, and values so that they may become competent, participating citizens in today's—and tomorrow's—society. A law-related education course is usually an elective, one-semester course. Since students are not required to take the course, they must *want* to take it. Because law education is relevant, realistic,

and concrete, it appeals to today's student. But, in developing the course, the teacher must realize that the attitudes and opinions of students are vitally important. Students both desire and deserve a voice in planning and shaping the project. Peer teaching and cross-age teaching help establish a leadership role for students. In one school district in our project, local legal and business community leaders cited shoplifting among the very young as one of their top concerns. Several students, working with a local department store and the police department, developed a slide presentation on the topic. This was a presentation by big brother and big sister, not the adult establishment. The students took great pride in their project. What school superintendent would walk away from such a glorious opportunity to strengthen community support for the school system?

In essence, before local school districts will make a commitment to any curriculum change, school administrators must be shown:

1. the basis for commitment to such a project,
2. the incentive for including the project in the curriculum, and
3. an environment in which communication is continual and effective.

Innovative programs are always vulnerable to the current climate. There are many forces that lie beyond the control of those involved in a law-related education project but that may shape its destiny. Close attention to the above three factors, however, will do much toward providing the necessary life insurance. And having won the commitment of the schools to law-related education, you will have taken the most important step toward community involvement.

Some Community Involvement Alternatives

Elaine Liftin

Everyone agrees that community involvement projects are one of the real strengths of law-related education. But what about students who can't get out of the classroom for one reason or another? Are they left out?

At Project LEGAL, we don't think they are. Project LEGAL is a comprehensive law education project in Dade County (Florida) that stresses community research through field study (junior high) or community law projects (senior high). At both levels, we've designed simulations and alternative classroom activities to accommodate situations in which community research is just not possible.

Field Study Modules (Junior High)

For those junior high kids who could get out of the classroom, we prepared an activity package, the LEGAL Student Source Book I, consisting of five field study modules in criminal law and five field study modules in civil/consumer law. A sample field study module is shown in Box A.

When planning a field study module, you should include:

- Primary focus area
- Topic
- Site location
- Overview of the field experience
- What to do before the trip
- What to discover during the trip and
- What to do after the trip

You should communicate with resource people well in advance of the actual field excursion, make any other contacts and preparations required, and design model answers for the questions you will ask students during the trip.

Elaine Liftin is Coordinator for Project LEGAL (Law Education Goals and Learning) in Miami. For more information about the program, contact her at 1410 N.E. 2nd Avenue, Miami, Florida 33132. The phone is (305) 350–3392.

BOX A

Field Study Module: Local Police Training Institute

PRIMARY FOCUS AREA: Criminal law

TOPIC: Police training

SITE LOCATION: Local police training institute

Overview of Field Experience:

The training of police recruits often takes place at a regional training facility run by federal, state, county, and local agencies. Locate your local police training facility. Does it offer advanced training for veteran officers and programs for corrections personnel as well as basic law enforcement programs for police recruits?

Before the Trip:

1. In general, find out as much as you can regarding the qualifications and requirements for becoming a police officer. Specific ways you can do this include the following:
   (a) Invite an officer from the police department serving your school to visit the class and explain hiring procedures and training requirements. Ask the officer to describe experiences as a police trainee. Have questions prepared for the officer, such as: At what age did he/she decide to become a police officer? Was the training difficult? How long was the wait to be hired after applying for a position as a police officer? Try to keep the focus on training.
   (b) Interview a police officer in your neighborhood to add to the information provided in the classroom presentation above.
   (c) View the LEGAL sound filmstrip Behind the Badge.
   (d) Preview the sound filmstrip The Cop on the Corner--Who Needs [illegible]? (Walt Disney Educational Media Co.).
   (e) Prepare a report in which you research the evaluation of the present police system. Find out:
      1) When was the police department established in your community?
      2) When did police departments become common in the U.S.?
      3) Try to locate a retired police officer to find out what police training was like in "the old days."

During the Trip:

Find out the answers to the following questions.

1. What is the purpose of the police training institute?
2. How long (months) does it take to complete the basic law enforcement program. How many clock-hours does this represent?
3. How does the physical condition of the average police recruit compare with that of the general population? (Are most recruits super physical specimens? Or are they out of shape?)
4. Give a brief description of the following training procedures and the facilities used to support them:
   a. Physical training and conditioning
   b. Classroom instruction (including audiovisual and computer support)
   c. Defensive driving
   d. Mock court
5. In addition to regular police officers, what other kinds of law enforcement or criminal justice personnel receive training at many police institutes?
6. What kinds of in-service or refresher training courses are available for veteran police officers? What incentives are there for veteran officers to take refresher courses?

BOX A

After the Trip:

1. Contact the police department in your community. Find out from a person in authority (the chief training officer, if there is one) the answers to the following questions:
(a) What is the typical educational background of police officers in the department (high school graduation, community college, college, other kinds of advanced training)?
(b) What is the starting salary for police officers in the department? Do research to compare starting salaries in major police departments with those in some smaller communities.
(c) Is the department hiring police officers at present? If not, how long is the waiting list?
(d) What is the department's policy on hiring minorities?
2. Contact the security officer at your school. Find out what kind of training he had to complete as a requirement for the job.
3. Briefly record any changes in attitude you had regarding police training and police work in general as a result of your study of police training.
4. Debate the topic: Should a police officer have to live in the community where he is employed?

Alternative Classroom Activities

While the primary emphasis of the *LEGAL Student Source Book I* is on field study, we realized that, for a variety of reasons, it is sometimes difficult or impossible to engage a class in field studies. Consequently, an alternative activity is provided for each of the field study modules. Some of the alternative activities are geared very closely to a corresponding field study module, while others expand upon concepts suggested by certain field study topics.

If the kids can't get out, you can compensate by bringing the community to them. Working with law-related individuals tends to foster a positive relationship between schools and the community.

Alternative classroom activities may include audiovisual presentations that specifically address or summarize a legal concept; however, more often, they may be drawn from the strategies detailed below:

1. *Dilemma situations—hypothetical cases:* This strategy, which uses stories based on real-life situations, attempts to place the student in the center of crucial situations in which there is no right or wrong answer.
2. *Data collection/evaluation/survey:* This strategy involves the student in collecting information on an issue by surveying people in his/her environment or evaluating assembled data (graphs, tables).
3. *Sociodrama:* This is a spontaneous teaching strategy in which students, without rehearsal, assume the roles of individuals caught in difficult situations.
4. *Mock appeals case/jury selection:* This strategy uses structured

and rehearsed role playing in which students attempt to recreate the atmosphere of a courtroom and respond creatively to the challenges of their roles. Afterward, they explain why events occurred as they did.

5. *Posters—propaganda/protest:* This strategy encourages the student to understand and, for propaganda purposes, vehemently advocate two sides of an issue by constructing colorful, expressionistic posters. Travel posters or protest signs are good models.

6. *Newspaper/media coverage and analysis:* This strategy helps students analyze the media that influence many of their decisions, as well as examine the role of those media in speaking for minorities.

7. *Music and/or slide presentation:* This strategy is especially suited for students who have a lot to say and are very talented but not inclined to speak in front of a group. Students may select themes from songs on their favorite albums and apply them to legal concepts. By selecting pictures from magazines and real life, they may also make a slide show and add the music for special effects.

8. *Debate:* This strategy engages students in a dialogue that develops insight into the issue as well as logical reasoning. Two or three students may work on each side.

9. *Interview of community resource persons:* Even when a class as a whole may not be able to go out into the community, individual students may have that opportunity. These students can contact and interview persons in the community who may clarify or help resolve a law-related social problem. Responses can be recorded in writing or on tape.

10. *Problem-solving discussion:* In this strategy, students use the data gathered in the above activity to go beyond realization of the problem to construction of solutions. This should be a highly structured discussion with specific guidelines.

The success of these strategies depends not upon the extent to which students are able to recall facts and cases, but rather upon the extent to which they clarify values on the issue, identify the issue as a problem relevant to themselves and their community, are involved in argument about the issue, and are able to simulate the appellate role of the judicial system in protecting the rights of the accused.

Community Law Project (Senior High)

The development of a community law project can be the culminating experience of a law-focused education program in senior high. The student should have an opportunity to apply what has been learned by conducting in-field research on a topic of his or her own choosing within the

framework of criminal or consumer law. Examining a particular problem on a firsthand basis in the community will raise the student's level of legal awareness in ways that cannot be matched in the classroom. Thus, the student will be better equipped to function in a society governed by laws.

The LEGAL Project has designed a community law project that allows students to enter the real world of community life by conducting independent research that deepens their understanding of legal concepts while providing exposure to a wide range of possible career choices. Operating within the framework of two main categories—criminal law or consumer law—students develop a project proposal that enables them to work with one or more community agencies or organizations in researching their chosen topics.

But we haven't forgotten the kids who can't get out of the classroom. So the next paragraph shows, even students who do research in the community also do a great deal of classroom work. For those who can't be active in the community, we merely substitute in-class research projects for out-of-class work.

The following basic structure for the activity is useful in selecting, producing, and presenting a community-based project. During Phase I, the students receive a general orientation to the community law project. Resource persons are invited to class sessions, and students determine their project type (community based or school based). They then select their topic, choose a format, identify resource and equipment needs, prepare project proposals, and submit their proposals for approval. During Phrase II, the students do their research. They identify main resources (print, audiovisual, and human), develop appropriate work forms (surveys, questionnaires, etc.), make community contacts (phone, personal), gather data, maintain logs and verification sheets to document their time, and attend class to meet with community resource persons scheduled by the teacher. During Phase III, the students prepare their projects. They analyze and organize data, complete research reports, and prepare class presentations. During Phase IV, the students deliver their research reports and observe and evaluate the presentations of other class members.

It is essential to provide sufficient project options to enable every student to become actively involved and to benefit from participation in this activity. Perhaps the project options that follow would be useful in constructing a community-based law project for your students.

Community-based research projects.—The purpose of this type of research is for students to study some aspect of the community from within the community itself. Students involved in a community-based research project might observe, survey, and interview, as well as become involved in library research pertinent to the topic.

The student should spend a minimum of five hours a week participating in the combined activities of this project. It is largely the student's responsibility to contact and make arrangements with the community resources pertinent to the project. It is suggested that a student undertake only one community-based project, and he/she may *not* undertake more than two community-based projects during one course.

For students conducting community-based research during Phase II, attendance in social studies class may not be required, depending on the attendance requirements of the school. However, such students are still responsible for handing in their weekly log and verification forms. Also, such students may want to check the list of class speakers each week to see whether any speaker will be discussing topics pertinent to their projects. In such instances, class attendance should be encouraged.

There are three types of other community projects available to high school students interested in law-related education. A community law project can be classified by its relative emphasis on (*a*) service, (*b*) action, or (*c*) observation.

Service projects place students in helping relationships. Students might be placed with a juvenile probation officer, with the state prosecutor's office, with a police department, with the consumer advocate's office, with a university professor who teaches aspects of criminal law or consumer law, or with a law clerk or law librarian. The list of potential service placements is as long as the number of law-related roles in the community. The student in a service project is expected to give direct assistance as an "extra pair of hands." Service projects involve a kind of on-the-job training and can be organized around the concepts and procedures of career exploration.

Action projects involve the student directly in policy formulation and implementation. For example, a student can take a participatory role within an existing action organization such as Common Cause or the League of Women Voters. The purpose of action projects is to bring about social or economic change—for example, to change the conditions in the Florida prison system, or to reduce automobile insurance rates for young drivers. Action projects are potentially more demanding and controversial than service or observation projects; persuasion, organization, and advocacy are more complex activities than gathering information or filling a service role.

Observation projects are research projects using the community resource(s) as the student's sole source of information during Phase II. For example, a student might choose an observation project focusing on the various activities that take place in a courthouse. He/she might go to different departments of the courthouse and (1) inquire about the function of

each department, (2) obtain any available forms and ascertain the function of each, and (3) observe the proceedings in each department and compile written or tape-recorded descriptions of these.

School-based research projects. For various reasons, some students will not be able to leave school to conduct research. Such situations can be accommodated by offering alternative research plans within the school setting. Community representatives can visit the school to inform students about topics related to criminal and consumer law, field trips for the entire class can be arranged, and research can be done in the school library.

The school-based research project can be directly guided and controlled by the classroom teacher. Class attendance is mandatory at all times. A student should undertake only one school-based project during the community law project.

Community involvement has been an essential ingredient in the success of the LEGAL Project in preparing students for what they will encounter when they get out into the "real world." Achievements extend far beyond the significant test results demonstrated by students in the LEGAL programs. In the words of LEGAL teachers during the 1978–79 field test trial: "The art of learning to learn was projected to a high degree: frequently students were obliged to call upon past decisions and evaluations and to play them into the current data and situations under consideration, recall ability was sharpened, critical thought processes were extended, the ability to rationalize was incorporated into both affective and cognitive domains, an excited yet controllable atmosphere prevailed, and in short, the kids enjoyed what they were doing."

Institutionalizing Community Involvement

Linda Riekes, Calla Smorodin, Verona Bowers, Armentha Russell, and Gail Y. Allmon

Community involvement projects often are viewed as exciting activities which take place outside of and apart from the regular school program. They are frequently afterthoughts to the planned course of study and in some instances are used as rewards for students who complete regular classwork in a timely and responsible manner. This can reinforce the notion that because community involvement projects include a dimension of adventure they are simply fun interludes, not a serious part of the school curriculum. It is difficult in such circumstances to move community involvement projects beyond pilot or demonstration activities and institutionalize them as part of the regular school program. Yet, institutionalization insures that your initial input will take hold and provide ongoing opportunities for youngsters.

In St. Louis

The St. Louis Public Schools' Law and Education Project demands careful thought and planning from students who want to go beyond the class-

Linda Riekes is Director of the Law and Education Project of the St. Louis Public Schools. Calla Smorodin coordinates the Urban Consumer Education Project of the St. Louis Public Schools. Verona Bowers is the Assistant Coordinator of the Urban Consumer Education Project with the Attorney General's Consumer Protection Division in St. Louis. Armentha Russell coordinates Consumer Education for the Educably Mentally Retarded in the St. Louis Public Schools. Gail Y. Allmon assists Armentha Russell.

The Urban Consumer Education Project is a cooperative program between the St. Louis Public Schools' Law and Education Project and the Missouri Attorney General's Office of Consumer Protection, funded by a grant from the U.S. Office of Consumer Education. To find out more about these programs, contact the Law and Education Project at 4130 Lexington, St. Louis, Missouri 63115. Its phone is (314) 531–2000.

room. It isn't enough that students have ideas to better their community; they need to think about time constraints, logistics, and realistic goals.

Our definition of community involvement requires a reciprocity between what the students learn in the classroom and what they do in the community. Students must demonstrate a level of proficiency in the knowledge and skills acquired in the classroom, which they can in turn apply outside the classroom in a way that benefits their community. Our law-related community involvement projects do not consist solely of a field trip or a classroom presentation by a resource person, but rather complement and reinforce information learned in a law-related classroom. We have a broad definition of community, encompassing any group outside of the students' classroom – in the school, the neighborhood, the city or beyond.

Community involvement projects, if they are to succeed as a regular part of the school curriculum, must be viewed as basic to the educational needs of students. This is one of the most critical factors in institutionalizing community involvement projects in a public school system. Not only are such projects a valid way for students to learn basic skills, they also allow students to demonstrate their newfound competence. The St. Louis Public Schools' Law and Education Project, now in its tenth year, operates with the premise that community involvement projects can and do reinforce the basic skill areas of reading and math, along with important law-related skills, knowledge, and concepts. (Examples of these projects are detailed in another article in this book, "Community Involvement Projects for Elementary Students.")

Concepts to Consider

Community involvement projects which teach basic skills are most easily incorporated into school systems. Reading, writing and math are so important that they can and should be included in many exercises. In another sense, skills basic to LRE – knowledge about rights, the judicial process, lawmaking, etc. – must be applied in the community. A number of key concepts have surfaced in our work with the Law and Education Project. We outline them here for others who want to integrate their projects into the regular school offerings.

Integral to LRE

Community involvement projects must be an integral part of the law-related curriculum. They must be an outgrowth of the substantive legal information that the students study. For example, every fifth grader in the St. Louis school system studies consumer rights. Each project that a student selects, whether from the major text, *Young Consumers*, or another source, must be directly related to what s/he is studying in the classroom.

This emphasis on basics has been extremely helpful in institutionalizing community involvement projects. Time is really at a premium in a school day and a "fun" community involvement project gets last priority unless it addresses essential learning needs. A teacher whose students are involved in a neighborhood clean-up campaign will be asked, "Shouldn't the students be working on their studies?" But if the community involvement project is an activity which directly reinforces classroom work, it can be justified to other teachers, principals, school administrators, parents and the community as a whole.

A high school unit on criminal law might include a student survey of neighborhood attitudes toward police. Sharing the collected data with the local police department's public affairs division can be a useful public ser-

---

The following drawing describes the philosophy behind the community involvement projects.

Rickes-Ackerly – *Law in Action*, West Publishing Company, 1980

vice. This is an example of a community involvement project which not only benefits the community, but is an integral part of the students' classroom studies.

The Teacher's Role

It is vital that the teacher be able to manage students' community involvement projects, that they are not seen as extra burdens. Generally, these projects center around student interests, but the teacher must have the time, ability and energy to help students carry them through. Student initiative is central to our philosophy of community involvement, yet the teacher must not be overwhelmed. Teachers have to look at realistic time considerations, the attention span of the students, transportation problems, expense, etc.

Our program in St. Louis developed a number of project ideas for particular grade levels and special populations. Manageable projects have been designed to reinforce K-4 curricula, for example; the teacher knows what amount of time to commit to each effort since the ideas have been tried already. The Law in Action Series by Linda Riekes and Sally Mahe Ackerly (St. Paul: West Publishing Co., 1975) includes a consumer law program for fifth graders, *Young Consumers,* a guide for sixth graders on *Law-making,* seventh grade projects on *Juvenile Problems and the Law* and *Youth Attitudes and Police,* and *Courts and Trials,* a book for eighth graders. A project on consumer law was also developed for slow learners. The suggestions in these series can be expanded or abbreviated.

One high school teacher, for example, commented that she had never wanted to do projects because she would have to do a project with each of her five classes. Junior high teachers or middle grade teachers in departmentalized classrooms are faced with doing projects with 150 students. They must ultimately judge the feasibility of class projects. In such instances, the teacher might want to use a filmstrip exploring student attitudes toward police. Using drawings and small group discussions, students can begin to evaluate their opinions about police in their community. This useful exercise, illustrated in the Law in Action book, *Youth Attitudes and Police,* can get students thinking, yet not flood the teacher with scheduling and transportation problems. By including other classes in the discussion, the class can broaden the impact of the filmstrip as well as free some teachers to plan other projects.

At times, a class that has successfully completed its first community involvement project will be eager to attempt a bigger project. Moving too fast can pose problems, though, unless the teacher and the students work as a team and clarify realistic goals for the project. A class that stages a mock trial and learns a lot from the debriefing afterwards, may want to

present it to the PTA. The teacher should weigh his or her time commitments before going ahead with invitations to parents and guest "experts."

Student Interest and Ability Paramount

Community projects must be of interest to students yet they must be able to carry them out. Students have to be involved in selecting or creating the project, but the teacher can help them consider the time and personal commitment required. This decision process alone can be educational, for students talk about what is important for them to do, and why, and how it benefits the community.

A hypothetical youth center described in the Law in Action book, ***Juvenile Problems and the Law***, is an alternative to juvenile court and police efforts on behalf of young people in trouble. The idea of a Youth Emergency League House could encourage seventh graders to set up a peer counseling project of their own. The commitment to help troubled young people is a big one, though, involving a great deal of time and effort. Students should evaluate their abilities to stick with it and their knowledge about helping others before starting on the project. They can then choose the appropriate project for their level: say, a six week program with service available only one day a week, or a year-long program in which the principal refers students with problems to their peers.

Success

Another key concept to keep in mind is that any project which students undertake should be as close to fail-proof as possible. A successful project buoys up each student's self-concept and sense of worth. A seventh/eighth grade consumer education class of special learners (educable mentally retarded) put together a pamphlet on how shoplifting affects the consumer. They worked with police representatives after an officer had spoken to their class. The class interviewed local merchants and family members about how shoplifting affects the prices of goods. The students looked at existing booklets about shoplifting, too. Their finished product included original art work accompanying the text. What satisfaction they got from their efforts! They proudly showed the pamphlets to the police and to other classes.

These students not only had a tangible item to show for their work, they also gained communication skills, asserting themselves in new ways. Community people were impressed with young people who were taking an active interest in this issue. The students' success enhanced their self-esteem and made them feel that their presence in their town was important.

Feeling effective is nice, but we do try to avoid giving students false notions of political efficacy. The truth is, none of us is able to accomplish

everything we want. For example, a first grade class studying law decided a traffic light was needed on the corner next to their school. The class wrote to their alderman and the head of traffic control. The first-graders were able to get a crosswalk sign posted, and the city scheduled a community meeting as well as a survey of the use of the corner. The students didn't get their traffic light, but they did learn that some efforts can get action started.

Genuine Contributions

Students have intuitive abilities to recognize busywork. It is unfair to ask students to work on a project that will not really help the community: Their time and energies are valuable! In "Juvenile Problems and Law" classes, some students study neighborhood youth services available within the school district. These surveys need to be updated annually, so that the information is current. Other students meet with police officers in community conferences on some specific topic, like runaways. Activities such as these keep the community informed about significant issues.

The five ideas we have discussed here will help solidify your plans for community involvement activities. The most important focus for any project, however, should be the basics—without the skills and knowledge which can be taught in the classroom, no community involvement efforts will direct the students' learning or reinforce their newly discovered abilities.

Elementary Education and the Community

223

The Classroom in the Community/The Community in the Classroom

Charlotte C. Anderson

Using that two-way street connecting your classroom and the community can greatly enrich your elementary LRE program. When the classroom travels into the community, the children see and experience firsthand what they read and are told about in the classroom courses of study. They may be able to practice being participating citizens of that community. When the community travels into the classroom, it does so through resource people, through community memorabilia and artifacts, and through experiences the children and you have had as members of that community. This essay explores the learning experiences to be had at either end of this two-way street—in the community and in the classroom—and offers some travel tips for smooth passage between these two points. Those learning experiences can (and probably should) span a wide spectrum of events, ranging from an occasion when the teacher telephones a school liaison of the local bar association to clarify a simple legal point raised in a social studies lesson, to a highly organized and extensive community project involving the entire class over an extended period of time. Between these two extremes are all sorts of possibilities for active community-classroom interaction in LRE.

Laying the Groundwork

Before you launch any law-related study or work in your classroom, inform your local bar association and lawyers' spouses association, if your community has such groups. If not, find a lawyer on your school board or one active in other educational or civic work. Do this even if your projected

Charlotte C. Anderson directs the elementary project of the ABA Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship. Contact her at 1155 E. 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637. The phone is (312) 947-3965.

study is for a short duration and even if you don't have any specific ideas on how to use the contact once you've made it. Tell your contact about your plans, offer to share copies of your course outline and/or curriculum materials, welcome observations. Seek assistance from this person as someone who is willing to be on tap should any knotty questions arise as the study proceeds, or as someone who might be willing to be an on-site resource. Tell your contact that you are informing him or her about your LRE program because you know that, as a member of the legal profession, he or she will be interested and able to provide you with valuable assistance.

A little effort at this point to garner support from the legal community can prove invaluable in helping you gain access to other community resources and in enriching your own perspective regarding the LRE learning experiences you have planned. You may find yourself incorporating other law-related experiences into your units of study as the year unfolds simply because you have formed this early alliance.

If this is the first time your contact has ever heard about LRE, you may wish to provide information on the national scope of the movement and local, area, and state projects. This can be done very simply by requesting such information to be forwarded from the YEFC offices.

Teachers are often a little wary of making this initial contact with attorneys and other community leaders. If you're in this boat, maybe these thoughts will help. Remember that even the Supreme Court justices didn't simply materialize one day wearing black gowns and somber brows. They were once the Bobbies, the Earls, the Michaels, with grubby knuckles and torn jeans, squirming at school desks in chalk-dusted classrooms across the country. And one of your Julies or Teds or Joses is very likely to grow up to be an attorney just like the one at the other end of the telephone line; so go to it, Teach. You may also take courage from the fact that the National Lawyers' Wives and Husbands Association has been one of the strongest supporters of LRE since its inception over a decade ago. Such staunch support suggests that the community, particularly the legal community, welcomes the opportunity to work with the schools in promoting effective law-related education programs.

The Classroom in the Community

Elementary schools have a distinct advantage over most secondary ones because it is generally easier to take elementary LRE classes into the community. For one thing, field trips traditionally have a legitimate place in the elementary school calendar. Parents and administrators expect them as a matter of course. For another, self-contained classrooms, which remain the norm in elementary education, make it relatively easy to schedule

a foray into the community. The classroom teacher can simply adjust other scheduled lessons to accommodate the time taken for the field experience. At the secondary level, such a trip generally has to be limited to a specific class period, or special arrangements must be made with other teachers for students to be absent from classes.

But relative ease of accomplishment is not a very good argument for such experiences as field trips. The potential for increased learning is. Young children in the early elementary grades need direct, firsthand experiences. And much of the subject matter of LRE can be experienced in the local community.

The following two articles in this book give excellent examples of learning experiences elementary children can have out in the community. These experiences range from simply seeing what real-life people and institutions are like to becoming directly involved in the life of the community. Each of these types of learning experiences is vital, and possible, for primary-level as well as intermediate-level children. Complexity and duration of the experience are what determine its appropriateness for any age or group level. While, for example, a class of first graders would not take on a community improvement project for their entire district, they could effectively manage a smaller-scale cleanup campaign for their own school yard and immediate neighborhood. Older children might have internships at a local police precinct; younger ones could learn important aspects of traffic safety by working with the school crossing guard for a week or two.

Other community involvement projects can serve as useful models for LRE programs. A good example is a four-week summer program directed by the Washoe County School District in Reno, Nevada. This community involvement program for academically talented fifth graders was entitled, "Reno/Sparks: A Study in Growth" (Sparks is a suburb of Reno). The program was designed to give students an in-depth view of the problems and potentials of urban growth in their own local community. While the project was not specifically law-related, some observations by the director of this highly successful program are pertinent here: "The press *really liked* the interaction between school and community, and we had considerable newspaper coverage as well as radio and TV interviews of some of the kids. . . . Making contacts took a *HUGE* amount of time, and I finally learned to go right to the top first. The response was more positive and faster. I was surprised at how eager people were to help and be a part of the program. Going to the source seemed to really impress the kids and made what they were learning about much more relevant, i.e., the mayors speaking in their city halls." For more information contact: Judith F. Simpson, Curriculum Department, Washoe County School District, 425 East Ninth Street, Reno, Nevada 89520.

Teachers who have taken their classes into the community can give you many tips for success. Some critical ones are:

1. Notify the parents. Keep them informed and enlist them in supervising field trips, etc.
2. Notify the community. Use the local newspaper to publicize major forthcoming community projects. Then, when they are over, use the "Letters to the Editor" column to thank key community resource people.
3. Go to the top. The heads of community civic offices and associations are generally concerned with the quality of education the schools are providing. They are also very aware of the public relations benefits of working with the schools. So, when you need access, go to these people. When you seek a resource person, they may be your best shot.
4. Take time to spell out what students can learn academically from out-of-the-classroom experiences. This list will be useful in getting needed approval from administrators and in staving off possible criticism for taking class time.
5. Prepare and follow up. Carefully preparing the children will pay off in what they do and learn "out there." Spending time reviewing the experience after it is over will reinforce learning while giving you an opportunity to clear up any possible misperceptions and/or fill in the blanks for the children.

May your journey into the community be fun, safe, and rewarding. Meanwhile, back in the classroom. . . .

The Community in the Classroom

There are many ways of bringing the community into the classroom. It is quite conceivable, for example, that the classrooms of the future will be equipped with closed-circuit television terminals, allowing students to monitor community events and interview community leaders right from their school desks. At present, the community can be readily brought into most classrooms (1) through resource people, (2) through various types of prepared information, and (3) through the experiences the classroom inhabitants have had within the larger community.

Resource people. "With older intermediate children," Roger Berg suggests ("Community-based Education," in *The Methods Book: Strategies for Law-focused Education,* ed. Arlene F. Gallagher [Chicago: Law in American Society Foundation, 1979]), "some consideration should be given to having resource persons make a short, 10-15-minute explanation of their occupation and what it means in the local world of rules and laws. This presentation could be put together on audio cassettes or videotapes for use by

other classes or in later studies. Such a resource library would be particularly useful for planning units of study."

Surely the school principal, physical education instructor, librarian, and safety patrol captain would willingly help out in this capacity. Other resource people Berg identifies as especially appropriate for elementary classrooms include: police officers, fire fighters, 4-H Club leaders, sheriffs, mail carriers, scout leaders, security guards at local shopping centers, representatives from the county human relations office, and neighbors of the school building.

When you bring community representatives into the classroom, it is important to be sensitive to the implicit as well as explicit messages conveyed to children. Take care that women and men, individuals of various ethnic groups, and senior citizens are represented.

How will you use a resource person? That depends. It depends on your needs and the resource person's time, qualifications, and interests, as well as how you relate to one another and how this person relates to the children in your classroom. You may, for example, enter into a long-term relationship in which you call upon the individual periodically. You may decide to co-teach some unit, or you may want only a one-time visit. No matter whom you call upon, there are a few guidelines that will help insure success.

1. *Choose the date and time for the visit(s) carefully.* Preview your lesson plans. When is the best time for such visits? Early in the studies to stimulate interest, or later on to provide more in-depth information? There are times that seasoned teachers steer away from, such as Monday mornings and Friday afternoons, right before or right after major holidays, just before the dismissal bell every day, or right after a filling lunch, especially on a warm afternoon when heads are likely to start nodding.
2. *Prepare the children.* Give them enough information about the resource person to stimulate their interest and to provide them with needed background. Explore with the children what kinds of things they want to learn from this person. (If they raise issues you feel or know he or she cannot address, tell them so and suggest other sources.) If appropriate, preview and practice the procedures you want the children to follow in interviewing the guest. It is always a good idea to have the children prepare the questions they want to ask ahead of time. The strategy outlined in Box A is an excellent one for upper-grade students.
3. *Prepare the resource person.* Adults who don't work with large groups of children every day often hesitate at the thought of being in front of twenty to thirty kids. Some of this discomfort

BOX A

Strategy for Preparing Questions for Resource People

A) Give every child three cards. On each card have them write one question they want the resource person to answer.

B) Have children form groups of three. Each group should read their questions and identify any that are duplicates. Instruct them to keep only one card for each question and to discard the duplicates. (If some questions are only slightly different from each other, have them change the question on one card to incorporate all the ideas in the similar questions, and discard the other cards.) When each group of three has its set of cards with no duplicate questions, form groups of six and follow the same procedure, comparing questions and keeping only one card for each distinct question.

C) Have each group of six report in turn. The first group to report reads all their cards. The second group reads only those cards that contain new questions. (The other cards should be separated from these and discarded.) At the end of this reporting session, the class will have a complete set of cards with a different question on each card.

D. At this point, collect the cards and spread them out face up on the table. Distribute four to eight markers to each child. (These can be beans, rocks, macaroni, pieces from a board game, etc.) Now instruct the children that they are to use their markers to vote for the questions they feel are the most important for the resource person to answer. They can distribute their markers any way they want--for example, placing one on six or eight different questions, or four on one question, two on another, and one on the remaining questions. Have them come to the table and place the markers above or below the cards so that the questions don't become obscured. When all markers have been placed, assign two children to count them and report on the corner of each card the number of markers placed on that question. Then have them gather up the cards, putting them in order from the most to the fewest number of markers, and report the results to the class.

Another pair of children could be assigned to write these questions on a large sheet of paper to be displayed on the wall. The questions should then be forwarded to the resource person, who will be able to give priority to the most popular questions when he or she addresses the class.

can be alleviated by providing the children's questions in advance and by preparing your contact for the visit in other ways. Eleanor Barnard's article in this book provides useful guidelines for using community resource people. Remember that it may be especially important to help resource people working with elementary schools identify media and artifacts they can use to stimulate the children's interest and help explain their message. Also, elementary children are often unfamiliar with, but fascinated by, the technology and uniforms that go along with any job.

There are several good models for using community resource people that

you might be interested in adapting to your particular needs. One of these is a program for using lawyers in the classroom developed by the Orange County Legal Education Program in Santa Ana, California. This project has produced a handbook, which is described in the Spring 1979 issue of *Update* magazine. The handbook includes a volunteer's guide, with a "script" for classroom presentation and a section on child development characteristics "to be used by the volunteer as a guide to the special characteristics of children that will be involved in the lesson." For more information contact: Orange County Legal Education Program, 1300 B South Grand Avenue, Building B, Santa Ana, California 92705.

The Law in a Free Society program has discovered that a lawyer's wife and a classroom teacher are an especially effective team in the elementary classrooms in Long Beach, California. In this program, lawyers' wives and teachers go through a one-day training program together before they team teach their planned courses of study. In the past, this program has involved only lawyers' wives, but certainly lawyers' husbands might also be involved. More information on this project can be obtained by writing: Jack N. Hoar, Consultant, Social Studies, Long Beach United School District, 701 Locust Avenue, Long Beach, California 90813.

Prepared information. Prepared information on your local community can be used most effectively both preceding and following a class field trip into the community. Before the field trip, such information will give the children needed background on what they will be seeing. At the end of the field trip, such prepared sources can reinforce and extend what was directly experienced.

One of the best and most readily accessible sources of information on your community is the local telephone directory. Combined with a large-scale map, the telephone directory gives a comprehensive picture of the community. The local telephone company will generally provide classroom copies of the directory, especially if you indicate that teaching the children how to use it is part of your planned curriculum. You will find many other ways to use your community maps and directory.

You may wish to start by having the children identify and locate the various law-related agencies available in your community. Younger children can construct three-dimensional models of the community while you use the directory and map to direct their work. The directory and map will assist preparation for a field trip. Students can use the directory to determine whom to contact to make arrangements for class visits to the police station, the courthouse, etc. Then they can call for information about how to make such arrangements. (Yes, you could do all of this yourself, but assigning committees to take charge of various aspects of such

a trip could prove an excellent learning experience.) The map can be used to plan the route to be taken to and from a selected site. Richard Weintraub offers a variation on this theme in suggesting that students plan and participate in a "Justice Ride" through the community. ("Another View: Law and the Humanities—a Design for Community Involvement," in *Daring to Dream: Law and the Humanities for Elementary Schools,* ed. Lynda Carl Falkenstein and Charlotte C. Anderson [Chicago: American Bar Association, 1980]). Such a ride would take students to all the agencies involved in the administration of justice in the community.

Other prepared sources of information are documents, photographs, and memorabilia and artifacts. While older children can, with a little assistance, handle information provided in printed documents such as newspapers, printed court proceedings, simulated police logs, transcripts of public hearings, etc., young children can gain vital information from more concrete sources such as photos and memorabilia and artifacts.

What photos might be especially relevant to your LRE program? Some good subjects for such photos are police stations, police cars, police officers at work, court buildings and courtrooms, courts in session, traffic signs and crossing guards at work, security guards in banks and department stores, and electronic monitoring systems.

Appropriate memorabilia and artifacts include police uniforms, certain smaller pieces of outdated and current police equipment, and a judge's robe and gavel. If you are exploring issues relating to consumer law, then labels from products will be useful. If your focus is safety and traffic regulations, mock traffic signs as well as such safety equipment as fire extinguishers will extend children's consciousness of the roles these play in the security of the community.

Child-constructed dioramas are a classic learning device in elementary classrooms. Following field trips, you might have the children construct dioramas of where they have been and what they have seen—police stations, police officers at work in the neighborhood, a courtroom, a detention center, school crossing guards at work, etc.

Your own and the children's experiences. In law-related education, as in any area of social education, it is critical to consider the social experiences that the teacher and the learner bring to the study. All children encounter private or informal law in their families, playgrounds, and classrooms. They experience public or formal law through stop signs, police officers, warnings on medicine bottles, and restrictions on activities in parks and other public areas. What children learn through these encounters affects how they will respond to the instruction they receive in the school. If, for example, children feel bombarded by the restrictions of law and rules, they are likely to be in no frame of mind to accept the teacher's dictum that

laws and rules help us live safer, happier lives. A better strategy would be to explore carefully with the children where and when they encounter laws and rules, how they respond to them, and, finally, what the reasons are behind them.

The particular nature of these experiences will, of course, vary from child to child and from setting to setting. Teachers must be attuned to these variances in tailoring instruction to their students. Among the factors affecting how children experience and relate to law and law-based issues are socioeconomic circumstances, ethnic group identification, and sex.

It is particularly advisable to be sensitive to the socioeconomic makeup of your classroom and your community. Some neighborhood schools are located in very poor areas in which children's encounters with the law are more likely to be negative than positive; their parents and other relatives are likely to have had "scrapes with the law" rather than experiencing the law as a positive social force. In other, more favored communities, the children's parents may be the lawyers and judges sitting in seats of authority. Both of these extremes need to be accommodated, as well as all the shades in between.

Just what do *you* know about the law-related dimensions of your community? What attitudes do *you* have toward them? Can you remember any time when a police officer helped you or scared you? Have you ever received a traffic ticket? Were you ever involved in shoplifting as a child? How did you feel about it? What did you do? Have you ever been to court? When you were growing up, did any member of your family ever go to court? How did that person react to it? What was his or her role in the court? How did you react to that incident?

When you launch any law-related study that draws upon the community for resources, it is appopriate to give the children and yourself a pretest on knowledge of and reaction to the law-related dimensions of your community. Yes, I did suggest that you give yourself a pretest. It might reveal a lot about your own background and your preconceptions about the law — especially if you compare it with a posttest taken at the close of the study. By assessing your own current knowledge of and attitude toward the law, you can determine the resources you need to draw upon as you develop your study. By reflecting on your own childhood experiences and attitudes, you will get in better touch with the children you are working with in LRE.

Whether the pretest you use with the children is formal or informal, it should help you know what areas the children need more information about, and what areas they may have some misinformation about that needs correcting. It should also help you identify what interests and information the children already have that you can draw upon as you work with the community.

By connecting your classroom to your community, you can make law come alive for your children. That abstract, distant, fuzzy—and sometimes frightening—"something" can be transformed into a familiar, dependable old friend.

Your community can help you respond to the child's plea:

What *is* law, Teacher?
Can I hold it in my hand and feel it?
Is it round? Is it soft? Is it cold?
Can I put it to my ear and hear it?
Is it a happy sound? A tinkling sound?
A roaring sound?
If I lick law, Teacher,
will it taste like salt or, maybe, sugar?
Let me smell law, Teacher.
A summer shower smells fresh and clean.
Our gym shoes have a musty smell.
Does law smell like either of these?
What *is* law,
Teacher?

School-Community Partnerships for Elementary Children

Tom Thomas and Pete Taylor

Do you think that elementary school children should be involved in helping to solve community problems? If so, what kinds of community experiences are suitable for elementary students? How can a teacher set up law-related visits or activities that will be exciting and educational? Young students and community members *can* join together to provide excellent opportunities for learning. The articles in this book describe ways for school-community partnerships to combine resources for the best possible education for youth of all ages. Elementary school children, eager to explore their world, can benefit from and contribute to this partnership in ways we describe here. The opportunities are numerous, so don't think we list them all!

Service-related activities involve children in issues and settings that can stir their curiosity and raise important questions. Primary and intermediate level kids can act on problems of littering and vandalism, for example, both in the classroom, by drafting legislation for the state or local level, and in the community, by cleaning grounds or helping to maintain parks and trails.

Elementary students have planned additions to playgrounds, calling on city and county government agencies for help. Students have worked with advocacy groups to conserve energy and to sponsor legislation to support their efforts. They have visited rest homes and convalescent hospitals, and helped elderly citizens on specific projects.

Tom Thomas is former director of the Tri-County Law-Related Education Project in Portland, Oregon. Pete Taylor is the Assistant Superintendent of Tigard Public Schools in Tigard, Oregon. For more information about LRE in the Portland area, contact the Tri-County Law-Related Education Project at 3830 S.E. 14th, Portland, Oregon 97202. Its phone is (503) 239–5821.

Strategies

An elementary level student, like anyone else, learns best when s/he initiates a project because of a particular interest. If primary students cooperate to assess community needs as their first project, they will be familiar with a broad range of possibilities and have a good selection from which to choose. Teachers can guide students toward experiences which will support LRE goals.

Though students may be excited about the needs they have assessed, the community may not be so understanding. The value of student involvement outside of the classroom must be made clear to the community. Some school districts have films or slide-tape presentations which describe the types of learning best accomplished by a school-community partnership. These formal programs can be complemented with outreach to individuals who actually help with law-related education—lawyers, law students, judges, parents, etc.

When planning lessons and units, the teacher's search for instructional resources in law-related education needs to be as broad as possible. Lessons can be organized according to topic, theme or concept and resources can be classified as people, places and things. The teacher's planning should aim at gathering resources to help children develop the attitudes and skills for responsible citizenship in a democratic society. Elementary teachers have found the form in Box A a practical method for planning. The form will need to be modified to meet the unique needs and style of each teacher.

Anti-Litter Project

Litter is everywhere. Students in any community, unfortunately, shouldn't have trouble identifying this problem. In the Tigard, Oregon school district, students of all ages participated in an anti-litter project. Tigard is a growing suburban community. As homes and businesses have spread across the landscape, one of the most visible problems has been increasing litter in streets and parks. Students in "Alternatives Futures," a high school social studies class, planned a student conference on litter and vandalism. The conference involved all fifth grade students in eight elementary schools. Students from two junior high schools helped plan the conference.

The high school students coordinated the project by finding a site for the conference, inviting speakers, and coordinating bus schedules for the elementary students. They gained the support of SOLV (Stop Oregon Litter and Vandalism), a state-wide volunteer citizens' group. SOLV provided speakers, litter bags and money to cover conference costs. The junior high

BOX A

SUGGESTED LESSON PLANNING FORM*

Lesson Topic: Authority

Resource Type	School	Community
People	Interview school secretary, custodian and bus driver about their authority. Classroom presentation by school administrator on authority.	Invite retired police officer to discuss authority with class. Ask convicted felon to discuss his or her views toward authority with class.
Places	Survey school for "signs of authority" e.g., No Talking, Men, Women, Staff Only, Walk, Push, Use Handrail. Observe in halls for examples of authority and power.	Schedule a courthouse tour. Visit city council meetings.
Things	Use Law in a Free Society Authority Kit. Review student handbook.	Review newspaper for articles that illustrate the differences between power and authority. Review city or county charter for sources of authorty.

*This example is intentionally incomplete but designed to illustrate how community and school resources can be combined in a law-related lesson.

students served as discussion leaders for small group sessions during the conference.

The fifth grade students developed plans for action at the conference. For example, students from one school decided that more waste cans were needed in key locations in the community. Students contacted the city council and obtained permission to place the containers in the city. Next, they contacted a local contractor who donated several small barrels to serve as litter containers. The students collected the barrels and painted them with appropriate colors and slogans, then arranged for garbage contractors to empty the containers without charge, as a public service. As a result of this student conference, the community's problem with litter was substantially reduced and the students gained a new understanding of their role as citizens within the community.

Exactly what can elementary students learn in a project of this kind? Students in Tigard studied the impact of law upon their lives. Their project led to student discussions and explorations about legal issues of liability and questions of authority in city planning. Through meetings with city representatives, students discovered that certain codes governed the placement of litter cans. Certain contracts had been signed with refuse haulers which prevented some companies from emptying the litter cans. In other words, students learned a body of knowledge concerning the legal obligations involved in the operation of city government.

These fifth graders also acquired the skills to gain and use information. Their efforts reinforced the two basic competencies of communication and cooperation. This community project required that the young people make group decisions about appropriate methods to solve problems. Further, the children successfully worked with bureaucratic organizations, remarkable in that bureaucracies frequently frustrate many endeavors. (Richard C. Remy identifies these accomplishments as necessary for citizenship in the *Handbook for Basic Citizenship Competencies* [Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1980].)

Student attitudes toward their role as citizens in the community can be substantially affected by an anti-litter project. Considerable evidence suggests it is important for students to gain a sense of their own worth and value: One way is for them to contribute to community projects.

Alert and Active

One goal of LRE is to reduce the crime rate by alerting youngsters to the harmful consequences of criminal activities. Essay and poster contests which focus on recurring crimes in a neighborhood can call attention to these effects. Neighborhoods Against Crime, sponsored by the Crime Prevention Division of the Portland (OR) Police Bureau, involves elementary students in poster-making and essay-writing about litter, vandalism and shoplifting. (Contact Terry McGill, Crime Prevention Division, Portland Police Bureau, Portland, Oregon, for more information.)

Children are able to draw on their own personal experiences or observations or they can recreate something they read about in the newspaper or heard on the radio or television. These visual and written products are then used in clean-up campaigns and anti-vandalism drives which neighborhood organizations and local merchants sponsor jointly with the schools.

Participation in governmental processes is a cornerstone of effective citizenship, and involving elementary students in legislative hearings can initiate this participation. Students can really follow the legislative steps

from defining a community problem to enacting a law or ordinance to solve the problem. They can survey their community and identify problems that could be resolved through legislative action. A lot can be learned about law-making if they then draft legislation around a specific issue. Elementary students, with the support of cooperative legislators, can make presentations at legislative meetings and watch their proposals introduced at the appropriate level (city, county, or state). Young students can further canvass the neighborhood for support for their legislation, as well as write letters for support to social and civic organizations in the community.

A community action project can not only reinforce citizenship skills, but can unify several subjects in one activity. In one instance, fifth and sixth graders were studying authority and privacy materials developed by Law in a Free Society. They were also studying energy in their science classes. As a community project, students examined the legal issues involved in the conservation of energy. Questions about the authority of regulatory agencies, public utilities and public interest groups were reviewed, along with issues of individual privacy and points at which this privacy may conflict with certain current public mandates.

Students invited speakers with divergent views to discuss the use of nuclear energy. They also wrote various agencies for more information. They interviewed community members to get a sense of public feeling toward energy conservation. In addition to these tasks, the students audited the energy usage within their school and identified ways to reduce the amount of energy consumed. Some students also did an energy audit within their own homes.

These students developed basic skills in listening, interviewing, speaking, and writing by participating in this effort. Since they also collected and evaluated mathematical data on energy use and assessed the validity of information from various sources, this community project put to use their skills in the language arts, mathematics, social studies and the sciences, and demonstrated the interdependence of these skills in solving real problems.

Legal Professionals: Retired and at Work

Retired people can offer a lifetime of skills and information to law-related projects. The SAVE (Senior Aide Volunteer Educators) Project operates in a school district that includes several large retirement communities. The school district's volunteer coordinator matches the talents of the volunteers with the needs and interests of the schools. A yearly talent search among the retirement communities results in an up-to-date catalog of volunteers, who are willing to tutor students and teach special interest courses.

Judges, lawyers, court reporters, and other retired members of the legal professior are a great resource. These people have helped with mock trials in the elementary classrooms, led discussions on changing legal practices, and told classes about the growing strength of retirement groups, like the Gray Panthers. We have involved retired Federal Bureau of Investigation agents, Internal Revenue Service personnel, private investigators, parole officers, and legislators for both in-service classes for teachers and direct contact with elementary students. Bringing together the generations diversifies and enriches the children's school experience.

Elementary children can understand a good deal about the American judicial system through a tour of the courthouse. The articles by Judge Marvin Halbert and Julie Van Camp included in this book treat such visits thoroughly. In Multnomah County, Oregon, a full-time tour manager provides resources to teachers and schedules and conducts student tours. The Multnomah County Education Service District published *See You in Court! Touring Multnomah County Courthouse*, a manual to help teachers. (It is available from Multnomah County Education Service District, 220 SE 102nd, Portland, Oregon 97216.)

Learning terms that describe court procedures prior to the visit helps elementary school children to get the most out of their trip to court. The difference between civil and criminal cases should be explained along with the different types of courts – small claims, domestic relations, criminal, probate, juvenile, traffic and animal court.

Knowing the roles of various court personnel can make the trip more educational, too. We find that when students draw pictures illustrating how a courtroom is set up, they start to visualize the "actors" they will be seeing. Specifically, our students learn the locations and functions of the judge, court clerk, witness, bailiff, lawyers and jurors.

It is also helpful for elementary children to understand the steps in judicial proceedings so specific observations in court will make more sense. In a criminal case, for example, teachers can explain the following steps: arrest, district attorney notified, complaint filed, warrant issued if necessary, released on bail, arraignment, plea entered, jury selected, trial, verdict and appeal. When children observe one or more of these steps during their visit, the teacher can help them understand the entire process of administering justice.

Knowing the steps in a trial, even though the students will usually view only a few of them during their visit, can help the students' comprehensive grasp of the process. So teachers should go over these with their classes prior to a visit: calling the case, opening statements, plaintiff's or prosecutor's case, defendant's case, closing statements, instructions to jurors and verdict.

Courts in most jurisdictions are in session between 9:00 A.M. and 5:00 P.M., and they are open to the public, except in rare instances. We teach the kids court protocol to help prevent disturbances of the proceedings.

How can a court visit be integrated into classroom studies? Some of these activities have worked for us:

1. Have students prepare conclusions to a trial they observed. Compare with the actual results.
2. Stage a mock trial in the classroom, recalling and applying courtroom procedures.
3. Your students can prepare a list of puzzling observations they made during the visit. Invite a speaker to come to your classroom and respond to the questions.
4. Students can draft legislation to improve upon the judicial processes they observed. Send it to a judge or lawyer for a critique.
5. Conduct a classroom debate focusing on legal issues—capital punishment, jury selection, legal drinking age, reimbursement of client's victims, minimum sentences.

Lawyer Consultants

What about inviting a lawyer to be a consultant to your school? A volunteer lawyer in our system serves as a consultant to a specific school for the entire school year. An on-going relationship forms between the lawyer and the school that is helpful when the school needs information, though we are careful to keep a clear distinction between legal services, which are excluded, and legal assistance for law-related education.

We have found the national, state and county bar associations extremely cooperative. They have located lawyers to work in law-related education, and helped design instructional materials. Groups that should not be overlooked in your community include the Young Lawyers Association, Black Lawyers Association, Women's Lawyers Association, and other legal associations.

A legal "hot-line" can be established between the school and the legal community for teachers and students to raise legal questions relevant to a particular lesson. Our experience is that the legal profession is willing to cooperate with schools not only because this is an opportunity to break down negative stereotypes but also to directly influence the level of understanding in the community about laws and the legal system.

As the Twig Is Bent . . .

Many school districts across the country are placing high school students as interns in the legal profession. Students help out in state legislatures, courts, and law offices. Yet one question remains unanswered: what prere-

quisite skills are desirable for students in these internships? Ground work for these skills can be laid at the elementary school level—the ability to phrase productive questions, the skill to conduct telephone interviews, the basic skills of writing and reading. Elementary students who have participated in community projects will probably be better prepared to participate as interns at the secondary level.

Even if internships are not part of a child's secondary school experience, an awareness of law and government process will always prove useful. Law-related education at the polls, before the judge's bench or on the streets is a long overdue lesson. If adult citizens are to be responsible in society and able to assert their rights, they need early exposure to the methods and philosophy of their government. Elementary schools are an excellent place to start this educational process. The suggestions we have made here are ways to begin, and secondary levels can further develop skills and concepts.

Community Involvement for Elementary Students

Linda Riekes and Calla Smorodin

Secondary teachers get all the advice, right? Elementary teachers have to content themselves with adapting LRE activities for older students to the needs and capabilities of primary students. Well, if you are floundering for this reason, this article may begin to remedy the situation. Creative and dynamic community involvement projects can be geared toward elementary students.

For purposes of this article, we define community as any group outside of the students' classroom. By the time most children enter fifth grade, they have a concept of community. They know it extends beyond their family, street, and neighborhood. They have learned to function in several communities—school, church, after-school centers, camp, scouting organizations, teams and other neighborhoods. They are aware, too, that they are part of city, state and federal communities.

Strengths and Limitations

There are considerations particularly relevant to elementary students: When designing community involvement projects with them, the teacher should be alert to these. In our work with the Urban Consumer Education Project in the St. Louis Public Schools, we found fifth grade an ideal time to begin community involvement projects. Children at this age (10-11) are vitally interested in the world around them, their written and oral language skills are adequate for communication with a broad portion of the community, and they have attained a reading level at which much "adult" information is written.

Developmentally, fifth graders have learned the rules of our society and when and how they are to be applied. Their intellectual development has

Linda Riekes is Director of the Law and Education Project of the St. Louis Public Schools. Calla Smorodin coordinates the Urban Consumer Education Project of the St. Louis Public Schools. Contact them at 4130 Lexington, St. Louis, Missouri 63115. Their phone is (314) 531-2000.

matured beyond what Piaget calls "concrete operations" – the internalized set of actions which allows children to solve problems in their heads and not rely solely on their hands, as younger children do.

Many fifth grade children and most sixth graders are on the threshold of the dramatic cognitive change which accompanies adolescence. Piaget terms these "formal operations," which refer to the shift in thinking about objects to thinking in abstract ways. Last, but not least, children in this age range generally have high energy levels and are enthusiastic about attempting something new and different.

This age group has limitations too, of course. Our fifth and sixth grade teachers have found several areas to watch out for. Briefly stated, younger children must see and understand the relationship between their community involvement project and their classroom studies. They may get bogged down in projects that stretch over a week or two, especially when an outsider is involved as a resource person.

Teachers must help students assess the physical and social factors involved with a project in the community. How will the children get around? What will the project cost? Is it safe to implement? Can they gain access to libraries? What are the conflicts in their schedules and those of their parents? For instance, even though a neighborhood survey has great appeal, the risks are best minimized by channeling such interest toward a school-wide survey of students and teachers and parents.

Happy Medium

Adults often minimize what children can do. But frequently, students left on their own take on jobs that are too big. The reality of student capabilities – the happy medium – perhaps lies between the two. It is possible to arrive at a balance which challenges yet does not overwhelm young students. The teacher needs to give careful thought to the attention span of the students and the scope of the project being considered.

Students in eight classrooms participating in the Urban Consumer Education Project wrote and produced eight 60-second public service announcements for television. Each announcement dealt with the importance of reading contracts before signing them. As you can imagine, students were immersed in writing, casting and rehearsing the spots and constructing sets. The focus of the activity, contracts, could easily have been overlooked by the students without constant reinforcement from the teacher. In this case, the medium of videotape was only the means to express the message. Teachers should not rely on their students to discern the "why" of their community involvement project, as this age group needs ongoing, clear and direct links made to the law-related curriculum.

Working with resource people from the community can offer exceptional opportunities, but their untempered enthusiasm can also really frustrate young children. The teacher should not let a resource person take a project beyond what students can do. An ambitious law student once volunteered to help students rewrite a law. She assigned more research at a time than the students could handle, however, and the project soon became too burdensome.

A similar task can be manageable if broken down into steps. For example, in the St. Louis system's fifth grade "Young Consumer" and sixth grade "Lawmaking" classes, the kids often write brochures on a selected topic. When a resource person is brought in to help with this, arrangements are made for several short visits rather than one long one. On the first visit, the resource person helps students locate adequate information; on the second, s/he discusses the brochure's purpose; on the third, the format and layout are planned.

Youngsters enjoy the satisfaction of successful, immediate application of their new skills. Writing a brochure is a good example of a project which reinforces the learning going on in the classroom. When students realize that basic skills in reading and language arts, for example, are useful in the present, there is added incentive to master these further.

Projects can be quite simple yet yield gratifying results. For many students, an LRE class may be their first venture in serving the community, so the project ought to offer obvious benefits and have a good chance to succeed. A sixth grade "Lawmaking" class went on a field trip to visit the mayor and sit in on a meeting of the board of aldermen. In an interview with the president of the board of aldermen, the students indicated a brochure would help them to understand the lawmaking process better. They were told none was available. The students then decided to write one of their own. It was subsequently published and distributed to other young visitors at city hall. Now outdated, it is being revised by another class. A similar brochure is in the works detailing the lawmaking process at the state level.

Beyond Criminal Activity

So often the law-related curriculum focuses on crime and its prevention. Many other areas of law can be taught as we have seen. The variety of regulations governing transportation, communications and other corporate activities can give students new ideas about careers as well as enhance their citizenship skills. A fifth grade class logged commercials televised during children's viewing times. After a week of monitoring, the students summarized their findings: Talking about the advertised products

led to discussions about consumer rights, truth-in-advertising, and federal rules about the amount of advertising on television. Their assessments were forwarded to the major networks and their local affiliates. Your class may also decide to invite a representative from a local TV station or a speaker from Action for Children's Television.

Young children have a fresh, creative way of viewing the world and they bring energy and enthusiasm to a project. A perceptive teacher can guide these students toward endeavors which can produce a real sense of accomplishment. Along the way, many ideas about law in our society can provide direction for continuing exploration of law-related topics.

Evaluation

Some Tips on Evaluating Community-Based Programs

James A. Fox

Everyone agrees that evaluation is important. Grantors often require evaluation of education programs, so they can see whether they are getting a return on their dollars. They need to know if the programs they are supporting are really having the effect they promised. Project leaders need evaluation, too. If they don't have timely and accurate information about their program, they won't know how it is doing and they won't be able to make the necessary alterations to make it better. For everyone involved, evaluation is as essential as a road map is for the traveler.

Of course, there are as many kinds of evaluation as there are programs. Some are expensive, while others are free. Some require sophisticated technology and highly trained experts, while others can be done by teachers, project leaders, and other lay people. Some are designed to give as full a picture as possible of almost every aspect of a program, while others intend only to give a general picture of what's happening.

In all cases, however, evaluation should be built into programs from the very beginning. Project leaders around the country agree that projects must be planned with evaluation in mind if they are going to be successfully assessed. And evaluation need not provide information only at the end of a project. If properly conducted, evaluations can provide feedback all along.

Generally speaking, there are two kinds of evaluation: informal evaluation (or monitoring) and formal evaluation.

Informal Evaluation

As a rule, the less expensive forms of evaluation are the less formal ones. Many of the informal evaluation tools used by community-based LRE pro-

This article, by a professor of statistics at Northwestern University's College of Criminal Justice, has been adapted for this book by Charles White. It originally appeared as a chapter in Courts and the Classroom: A Guide to Law-Related Education Programs, *by Julie Van Camp, General Editor and Author (Concord, Mass.: LEAD, Inc., 1979)*

jects around the country are not "scientific." They don't intend to formally measure changes in student attitudes or behaviors as a result of the program, nor do they compare students in a program with a control group of students who didn't participate.

Rather, what they do is ask students and sometimes teachers to answer questions dealing with how they felt about the program. These questions are usually simple and open-ended. They are designed to encourage respondents to speak their minds fully and tell what was important to them about the experience. For example, questions include: "What was the most valuable thing you learned during your court visit?" "How did you feel about the people you observed in court?" and "Would you make any changes? If so, what changes would you make? How would you improve the structure and content of the program?"

Another kind of informal evaluation asks students to grade the community-based experience. For example, students might be asked to rate on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = poor, 5 = excellent) the likelihood of their using information they learned through an internship. At the same time, a community resource person might be asked to grade a student who interned with him/her. A sample question might ask the resource person to rate the student on a 1 to 5 scale on his/her ability to listen and respond appropriately.

A third alternative is to record and comment on what happened in one or more community-based learning experiences. For example, the Institute for Political/Legal Education has drawn up a chart (reproduced on pages 64-65) that asks students to fill out the data of the experience, its initiator, its location, and the people affected. It also asks students to provide a description of what happened.

What all of these informal methods of evaluation have in common is that they provide a quick look at what is happening and what effect that's having on people involved. Another similarity is that all of these approaches are either very inexpensive or absolutely free. All you need for most of them is a Xerox machine to reproduce the questionnaire or chart, and participants who are willing to sit down for a few minutes to fill it out. Project leaders can get a good idea of what's happening just by reading through the completed questionnaires.

An example of how this works in practice is provided by the Student Law-Related Education Project operated statewide by the Trial Court of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. As project director Julie F. Van Camp points out, there is a law-related education coordinator in each of the 69 district courts around the state. These coordinators (who are usually probation officers) need to know how court tours, teacher education programs, or other programs put on by the project are going. Therefore, the statewide project supplies them with sample questionnaires (reprinted on pages 256-65

of this book), which they can run off on a Xerox and give to participants. Each project director can then look them over and form judgments of how the project is going, and he/she can also pass them on to the judges, lawyers, and other court employees who are involved in talking with students and teachers.

Of course, there are plenty of things these simple questionnaires cannot do. They rely on self-reports by the participants, so there are all sorts of possibilities for bias and incomplete responses. Moreover, they are not really conducive to any kind of in-depth analysis of *how* the project may be changing attitudes, behavior, and knowledge. While they do provide something to go on, many funding sources would prefer harder evidence of what the project is accomplishing, and many project directors might like to have fuller information about how the project is affecting various kinds of students (e.g., breakdowns by sex, grade level, income group, etc.). If the money and time are available, a more formal evaluation could answer their needs.

Formal Evaluations

Formal evaluations involve a much more intensive analysis. They generally try to see whether the project has succeeded in causing certain changes or in bringing about certain achievements. Formal evaluation is designed to determine to what extent a specific set of project activities directly relates to carrying out project objectives. Whereas informal evaluation is designed to measure outputs, formal evaluation is designed to determine to what extent these outputs result from the project or can be directly attributed to it.

Since the goal of formal evaluation is to discover whether the project's activities have caused certain results, it generally requires several components. They are:

A. Clearly defined and measurable objectives (or hypotheses) concerning the outcomes of project activities;
B. Theoretical linkages (assumptions) between the project's activities and its expected outcomes;
C. Specifications of the data needed to measure whether the objectives have been achieved or the hypotheses substantiated;
D. A design for determining if the outcomes can be attributed to project activities (for example, comparing data with a control group that did not participate in the project); and
E. Measurement of project activities and processes.

This set of evaluation components covers the major issues of formal evaluation. By discussing each of them in some detail, this article will give a picture of what formal evaluation requires.

A. *Objectives*—The very first step in conducting an evaluation is to

come up with objectives that can be measured. One writer has identified three types of objectives: activity, intermediate, and outcome. Although related, these types really refer to different aspects of a program's impact.

Activity objectives delineate the specific type, range, and amount of services to be delivered to the target population. For example, for an internship program, the activity objectives might be to place students in law-related settings.

Intermediate objectives are the results expected in the short run, at selected program intervals. To continue the example of an internship program, intermediate goals might be that students demonstrate responsibility and that they be exposed to a wide range of career possibilities.

Outcome objectives specify the ultimate change/result that the program is designed to produce. In the internship example, ultimate goals might be to reduce antisocial behavior and enlarge career options.

The project objectives must be clearly defined and differentiated from one another if any judgments are to be made concerning the project's success or failure. Objectives have to be framed in such a way that they can be isolated, measured, and tested. That is another way of saying that evaluations will work best when they are part of the planning of the project from its very beginning. If the objectives are clearly delineated and are measurable, then the evaluator's job of finding and measuring the data is that much easier.

B. *Theoretical linkages*—The necessary second step in the process is to determine whether objectives can really be achieved by a project. That is, is there a logical correspondence between the project's activities and the desired outcomes? This question, in turn, raises two others:

1. Are the objectives logical and testable statements of the assumptions underlying the attempted solution to the program?
2. Are the quantified goals set by the objectives realistic?

To take the example of an internship program once again, answering question 1 might involve looking critically at the assumption that there is a link between internship and career choice. Answering question 2 might involve looking at whether it is realistic to reach *X* students, or to expect that each student will be exposed to *Y* career choices.

To put it another way, the program will have to frame its hypotheses or goals carefully, so that it is seeking something that it really has the potential to achieve. That suggests in turn that the evaluation may measure the *relative* performance of the program, rather than an absolute success/failure dichotomy.

C. *Data specification*—Once the objectives have been defined and the validity of the project assumptions have been investigated, the next step is to determine what data are needed for an evaluation. Basically, this step

consists of translating the outcomes embodied in the objectives into empirical measures, so that events can be clearly classified and hypotheses tested. To put it another way, this step often involves putting words into numbers, taking the general goals of the project and determining how to measure them.

Of prime importance, of course, is that the measures selected for testing should be reliable, valid, and directly related to the project objectives. Unless there is a clear correspondence between the project's activities/assumptions and the empirical measures/data items, the accuracy of the results will be in doubt and the evaluation may be worthless.

D. *Analysis design*—Selecting an appropriate analysis design is of crucial importance. An analysis design provides a context within which to conduct data analyses. It is a method for identifying changes in the participants of a project, and a basis for ascertaining whether these changes can reasonably be attributed to the project's activities rather than to other, external factors or to chance.

Analyses plans may range from fairly simple, single-time assessments to more involved, classic pretest-posttest control group designs. Among the factors that should be considered are:

1. *Purpose of the evaluation:* new projects typically go through a shakedown and evolution phase, when quick feedback is much more informative and useful than impact and outcome data; at other times, however, more formal data are absolutely necessary.
2. *Availability of data* necessary for appropriate comparisons and *accessibility of suitable comparison groups.*
3. *Time* needed to complete an evaluation using one design or another.
4. *Costs* to collect the desired data and analyze it.
5. *Potential benefits,* such as project improvements and planning for future projects, that might be derived from the evaluation.

Despite these guidelines, there are no simple rules that rank one analysis design over another. Generally, evaluators will usually have to make compromises between methodological requirements and the administrative needs and resources of the project.

However, if the design is to constitute a true evaluation, it must include: (1) both a control group and an experimental treatment group, and (2) baseline as well as treatment data measures (that is, data on how participants were before the project began contrasted with how they are during and after it).

E. *Data collection*—The final aspect of the evaluation process is to construct instruments for gathering and recording the information that will subsequently be subjected to statistical analysis and interpretation. Of

course, you should determine your data selection needs in advance, and you should construct appropriate instruments early, particularly if the data collection is to be ongoing during the routine activities of the project. This sort of planning is essential if all relevant information is to be collected and recorded in useful forms for subsequent analysis.

Naturally, the kinds of instruments will vary greatly depending on the goals of the project. Probably no one else's instruments will work perfectly for your project, since your goals are almost certain to be at least a little different from theirs. However, you can learn a lot from looking at the instruments that other projects have come up with. Therefore, a collection of instruments is included on the next ten pages. These instruments are designed to measure the success of the project by comparing results either with data derived from tests of a control group or with the results of a pretest given to those who participate in the project. Of course, the more background questions you ask of students (age, sex, grade, previous involvement with the law, past history of delinquent behavior, etc.), the more you will be able to analyze the data. Instead of merely being content with showing the differences between the students before and after the project, or between students in the project and the control group, you will be able to see what effect the project had on specific subgroups of kids.

Putting It All Together

On pages 266-67, you will find a chart describing the findings of one project's evaluation. In a simple three-column format, the project lists its 13 objectives, the measurements to apply to each of the 13, and the results. Note that some of the measurements were relatively simple (class attendance records kept by each teacher), and some quite sophisticated (pretests and posttests). The two kinds of evaluation were necessitated by the different kinds of objectives. Some were simple enough to be verified by attendance records or students' self-reports. Others could only be verified by comparing the results of tests given to students before and after the project.

This article has touched very little on technical concerns, since they are best reserved for experts in evaluation. However, the information presented here should be of help to any project leader or teacher concerned with measuring what effect a given community education program is having.

Evaluation is not just an imperative forced on the schools by grantors, but a moral imperative of education. If we are to behave as competent, caring educators, we must find out if our programs are succeeding and what we can do to strengthen them. If we have the time and money to

carry out a formal evaluation, so much the better, but fortunately there are many simple measures that anyone concerned with community education can carry out. In the final analysis, evaluation should be (and is) for everyone.

Sample Evaluation Instruments

STUDENT ATTITUDE-COGNITIVE

PRE-TEST/POST-TEST

The following tests are designed to measure students' attitude, respect and knowledge. You are not asked to sign your name, but please put a code of your choosing in the upper right hand corner and record your code somewhere in your notebook as you will use it again at the end of the semester.

1. Age _____
2. Sex _____
3. Grade _____
4. Have you ever been stopped by the police? YES NO
5. Have you ever appeared in court as a defendant?
6. Do you know anyone currently employed by the District Court Department?
7. Have you ever been suspended from school?
8. Have you ever considered quitting school?
9. Have you ever been truant?

The following true/false test is designed to measure students' knowledge and awareness of the law and court procedures. Please circle your answer in the left hand margin.

T F 1. A youth who runs away from home can be brought before a judge for such action?

T F 2. The purpose of a jury is to decide if the rules of law have been adhered to during the trial.

T F 3. Appeals courts hear only criminal cases.

T F 4. When someone is found guilty by a jury, the judge can impose any sentence he or she deems fair.

T F 5. Judges, as well as legislators, establish laws.

T F 6. "Precedent" refers to laws previously established by the legislature.

T F 7. If you purchase faulty equipment from a store you cannot file a damage suit against that firm because it is your responsibility to be sure the equipment is in proper working order (buyer beware).

T F 8. Court clerks are appointed by the governor.

T F 9. Probation reports concerning an accused person are admissible as evidence in court.

T F 10. A defendant must prove his innocence beyond a reasonable doubt to be found not guilty.

T F 11. The docket is the place where an accused person sits during his trial.

T F 12. Statutory law refers to law passed by the legislature.

T F 13 The crime of arson is a crime against property.

T F 14. All delinquent acts are crimes of which an adult may be accused.

T F 15. A prosecutor may attempt to convict for a higher offense than that with which an accused person is charged.

T F 16. Police officers make the decisions to charge persons with crimes.

T F 17. An indeterminate sentence means the defendant has no idea how long he will be in prison.

T F 18. Juveniles become adults in the judicial system at age 18.

The following Agree/Disagree 6-Point Scale is designed to evaluate students' attitudes and respect for the law and the courts. Please circle the number which best describes your feelings about the statement.

1 - Strongly Agree
2 - Moderately Agree
3 - Slightly Agree
4 - Slightly Disagree
5 - Moderately Disagree
6 - Strongly Disagree

Statements:

1. It is a person's obligation as a citizen to be a witness in court when asked, free of charge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Society should pay attorneys' fees for persons who can't afford lawyers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Civil cases should not be settled by juries or judges, but instead by boards of experts trained in the technical questions of civil suits.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. It is all right to commit a crime against a person who deserves it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Persons are treated equally in court regardless of their position in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. If you can get by with it, it is all right to commit a crime.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. More people should be sentenced to prison for breaking the law.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. It is all right to lie in court to protect a friend.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. It is not bad to break a law so long as someone isn't hurt.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. The purpose of a sentence should be to deter further criminal behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. A juvenile should not be treated as an adult in court when accused of the same crime.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Murder is justified under certain circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. It is all right to break a law when you feel it is unfair.	1	2	3	4	5	6

14. A judge rather than a jury can more accurately determine the facts in a case and make a finding of guilt or innocence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. The legislature usually passes laws based on pressure from special interest groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Regardless of sex, all persons are treated equally under the law.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Persons sentenced to prison are less likely to break the law again than those placed on probation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Juries generally understand cases well enough to make fair decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Society cannot function without laws.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. You should not be brought to trial for hurting someone when you didn't mean to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Most people respect the law.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. The judicial process is too slow.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Sample Instruments (*continued*)

There are no right or wrong answers to this test. It is designed to measure your attitude toward and respect for various components of the court system and authority figures in your life.

JUDGES

GOOD	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	BAD
CRUEL	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	KIND
HONEST	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	FAIR
HARMFUL	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	HELPFUL
STRONG	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	WEAK
SOFT	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	HARD
PASSIVE	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	ACTIVE

PROBATION

GOOD	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	BAD
CRUEL	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	KIND
HONEST	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	FAIR
HARMFUL	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	HELPFUL
STRONG	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	WEAK
SOFT	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	HARD
PASSIVE	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	ACTIVE

LAWS

GOOD	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	BAD
CRUEL	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	KIND
HONEST	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	FAIR
HARMFUL	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	HELPFUL
STRONG	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	WEAK
SOFT	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	HARD
PASSIVE	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	ACTIVE

PARENTS

GOOD	___	___	___	___	___	___	BAD
CRUEL	___	___	___	___	___	___	KIND
HONEST	___	___	___	___	___	___	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	___	___	___	___	___	___	FAIR
HARMFUL	___	___	___	___	___	___	HELPFUL
STRONG	___	___	___	___	___	___	WEAK
SOFT	___	___	___	___	___	___	HARD
PASSIVE	___	___	___	___	___	___	ACTIVE

COURTS

GOOD	___	___	___	___	___	___	BAD
CRUEL	___	___	___	___	___	___	KIND
HONEST	___	___	___	___	___	___	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	___	___	___	___	___	___	FAIR
HARMFUL	___	___	___	___	___	___	HELPFUL
STRONG	___	___	___	___	___	___	WEAK
SOFT	___	___	___	___	___	___	HARD
PASSIVE	___	___	___	___	___	___	ACTIVE

TEACHERS

GOOD	___	___	___	___	___	___	BAD
CRUEL	___	___	___	___	___	___	KIND
HONEST	___	___	___	___	___	___	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	___	___	___	___	___	___	FAIR
HARMFUL	___	___	___	___	___	___	HELPFUL
STRONG	___	___	___	___	___	___	WEAK
SOFT	___	___	___	___	___	___	HARD
PASSIVE	___	___	___	___	___	___	ACTIVE

SENTENCING

GOOD	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	BAD
CRUEL	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	KIND
HONEST	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	FAIR
HARMFUL	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	HELPFUL
STRONG	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	WEAK
SOFT	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	HARD
PASSIVE	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	ACTIVE

POLICE

GOOD	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	BAD
CRUEL	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	KIND
HONEST	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	DISHONEST
UNFAIR	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	FAIR
HARMFUL	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	HELPFUL
STRONG	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	WEAK
SOFT	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	HARD
PASSIVE	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	ACTIVE

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What were your attitudes toward court procedures and court personnel (judges, attorneys, policemen, prosecutors) before you took the course? Have your attitudes changed? If so, how have they changed, positively or negatively and why? What factors or people changed your attitudes?

2. Did you feel speaking with the various court personnel, especially the discussions with the presiding judge, were beneficial, interesting and educational? Why or why not? Was this a factor that changed your attitude; if so, how?

3. Do you have a better understanding of court terminology and procedures now? What are some of the terms and procedures you learned (criminal and civil)?

4. Did you understand the difference between criminal and civil procedures before you took the course? If not, do you understand the difference now? What factors contributed to your understanding?

5. How would you improve the court observation sheet?

6. What were the outstanding features of the program; what were the negative features?

7. Would you make any changes? If so, what changes would you make? How would you improve the structure and content of the program?

8. Was participating in the program a worthwhile, interesting, and valuable experience for you? Why? How? Would you recommend this course to other students? If so, what age group?

SCHOOL_____ SESSION(S) _____

GRADE _____ _____

_____

STUDENT EVALUATION SHEET

1. What was the most valuable thing you learned during your court visit(s)?

2. What changes would you recommend?

3. How did you feel about the people you observed in court?

4. What questions do you have about what you observed?

NAME _____ SESSIONS OBSERVED

SCHOOL _____ _____

GRADE _____ _____

TEACHER COURT VISIT EVALUATION

1. Briefly describe your students' reactions to their court visit(s).

2. What do you feel was the most important thing your students learned from their court visit(s)?

3. Do you have any suggestions which would make a court visit more meaningful to your students?

4. Do your students receive any law-related instructions as part of their curriculum?

OBJECTIVES, MEASUREMENTS, RESULTS*

Objectives	Measurements	Results
1. 95% of enrolled students complete the project.	Class attendance records kept by each teacher.	96% completed the project.
2. 90% of enrolled students cut no project classes.	Class attendance records kept by each teacher.	89% cut no project classes.
3. 70% of enrolled students show statistically significant (.05) improvement in attitude, toward the law, courts and schools.	Pre-test/Post-test administered through Northeastern University.	Law and courts were significant, school was not significant.
4. 70% of enrolled students show statistically significant (.05) improvement in knowledge of the law, court procedures and court-related career opportunities.	Pre-test/Post-test administered through Northeastern University.	Knowledge was highly significant, (.005). Significance was tested in #3 and #4 using 100% of students.
5. 75% of enrolled students cut no regular high school classes while participating in the project.	High school attendance records.	Records did not separate cuts from legitimate absences. Approximately 90% of project students missed at least one day of school during the semester.
6. 80% of enrolled students have no high school recorded truancies while participating in the project.	High school attendance records.	86% had no recorded truancies.

Objectives	Measurements	Results
7. 95% of enrolled students have no high school recorded suspensions while participating in the project.	High school attendance records.	98% had no recorded suspensions.
8. 98% of enrolled students receive no juvenile complaints while participating in the project.	Coded court records. Self-report student interviews/questionnaires.	97% received no juvenile or adult complaints.
9. 95% of enrolled students not questioned by police while participating in the project.	Self-report student interviews/ questionnaires.	Not measured due to incorrect test directions in two schools. Pre-tests showed 64% had been questioned/ post-test not valid; 21% had received juvenile complaints on pre-tests.
10. Reduce self-reported juvenile complaint rate among enrolled students by 30%.	Self-report student interviews/ questionnaires.	
11. Reduce truancy rate among enrolled students by 50%.	High school attendance records.	School records were not consistent in definitions. Where school and project definitions were the same, reduction was 50% exactly.
12. Reduce suspension rate among enrolled students by 50%.	High school attendance records.	Self-report and school records are inconsistent. Self-report through interviews and teacher discussion measured approximately 60%; records indicate 98%.
13. No more than 5% of enrolled students drop out of school.	High school attendance records.	No student dropped out of school. Pre-test indicated many (22%) had considered dropping out.

Further Resources

Articles, Books, A–V, and Other Resources

Mabel C. McKinney-Browning

The community can serve as a resource for ideas, strategies, and information, a place of action or a supplement to classroom instruction. The articles, books, media, and organizations listed below may help you to decide how to fully use this dynamic tool in your classroom. This brief listing is by no means complete, but it should help you find some other help. Leave none of these "stones" unturned as you look for places to go, things to do, and people to help you provide meaningful community involvement experiences for your class or program.

Articles

Arbetman, Lee and O'Brien, Ed. "From Classroom to Courtroom: The Mock Trial," *Update on Law-Related Education,* Volume 2, Number 1, Winter, 1978, pages 13-15, 46-48. This article, written by members of the National Street Law Staff, is an excellent resource for teachers interested in using the mock trial strategy. From distributing materials to debriefing the experience, this article highlights all of the details contributing to a successful mock trial. Also included are a bibliography of mock trial materials and a mock trial outline, as well as suggested procedures for adapting this strategy for elementary students. (Back issues of *Update* are available for $2.00 each from the American Bar Association, YEFC, 1155 E. 60th St., Chicago, Illinois 60637.)

Vazquez, Enid. "Letting Kids Do It," *Update on Law-Related Education,* Volume 2, Number 3, Fall, 1978, pages 28-29. This article expresses the student's view of youth participation. "Opportunity. . ." writes the author,

Mabel C. McKinney-Browning is assistant director of the elementary program of the ABA's Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship. The address of the project is 1155 E. 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637. Her phone number is (312) 947-3963.

". . . is the bottom line." The writer, a senior high school student, shares a number of student experiences, both positive and negative, portraying student willingness to be involved and student desire for that involvement to be productive. The article encourages teachers to provide "firsthand experiences which sharpen skills and improve the quality of life." The timely advice and suggestions offered by this young author should help teachers provide experiences which will challenge and stimulate young people to become actively involved in issues affecting their lives. (See above entry for ordering information.)

White, Charles. "Getting Started," *Update on Law-Related Education,* Volume 1, Number 2, Fall, 1977, pages 29-31 and "Beginning a Law Program," *Update on Law-Related Education,* Volume 2, Number 1, Winter, 1978, pages 27-30. These articles are based on interviews with secondary classroom teachers who began law programs. The first article, "Getting Started," emphasizes basic steps in gearing up for the law program. Especially useful are sections on teacher recommended resources and the use of community resources to supplement and highlight classroom instruction. The second article, "Beginning a Law Program," explains the goals of the law program and methods used to achieve them. Both these articles offer timely, "how to" advice from people who have successfully gone through the experience of starting from scratch. (See first entry for ordering information.)

Books

Education for Participation: A Development Guide for Secondary School Programs in Law and Public Affairs (1974). Todd Clark. Teacher Resource. Softbound, 66 pp. Price: $3.00. (Distributed by Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1510 Cotner Avenue, Los Angeles, California 90025.) If you are beginning a new LRE program or looking for ways to enrich your program by using community resources, this booklet can guide your efforts. The booklet is divided into three sections. Section I, "An Introduction to Program Development in Law and Public Affairs," contains information on organizing community resource programs as well as information on possible funding sources, teaching materials, and methods. Section II is an excellent review of program models for law and public affairs. Section III provides three very helpful listings—consulting assistance and information, projects which focus on student participation, and materials available through CRF. Take a look at this before you begin making your plans; it is packed full with useful information and advice on getting a program started and keeping it going.

LRE Resource Guide for Elementary Classrooms: A Resource Guide to Assist Lawyers and Law Students for Participation in Kindergarten-Eighth Grade LRE Classrooms (1981). Developed by Phi Alpha Delta Law Fraternity. This handbook is useful for both teachers and resource persons. (Obtainable at a nominal expense [not yet determined as this book went to press] from Phi Alpha Delta, 910 17th Street, N.W., Suite 310, Washington, D.C. 20006.) An excellent publication both for elementary teachers and for community resource people who come into the classroom. For the resource person, it contains a sample lesson plan for each grade level, along with useful background information. For the teacher, it contains suggestions both for previsit and post-visit activities. Also included are lesson plans for the educably mentally retarded, the orthopedically handicapped, and gifted students.

Phi Alpha Delta will have a companion volume for grades 9-12 ready by fall of 1981. Contact them at the address given above for more information.

Law in the Classroom: Activities and Resources (1979). Mary Jane Turner. Resource handbook. Softbound, 233 pp. Price: $17.00 (Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302.) At last a handbook that not only helps teachers to know what to request of a resource leader but gives the resource person guidelines for making presentations in the classroom. It "provides practical assistance to resource persons who will be making presentations about the law and the justice system in schools and organizational settings." The book suggests a number of learning strategies suitable for elementary and secondary classrooms and includes activities focusing on four types of law content: introduction to law, individual rights, criminal law, and civil law. For each content area, the activites section also provides a number of handouts for duplication and classroom use by the resource person. A bibliography of additional sources and resources that can be used in teaching law to school and community groups and an index to content and activities round out this guide. While most of the materials presented are for secondary students, each content area presents at least one elementary activity. Many of the secondary activities are also adaptable for elementary students.

In Search of Justice (1978). William M. Gibson and E. Steven Coren. Junior and senior high school. Softbound, 118 pp. Free. (Printed and distributed by the Massachusetts Bar Association Foundation, Inc., One Centre Plaza, Boston, Massachusetts 02108.) This instructional guide outlines a logical and organized approach for incorporating law into the classroom program. Designed as a resource for lawyers coming into classrooms for the first time, this book is especially useful to teachers who

are somewhat unsophisticated in their knowledge of the law. The guide covers such areas as civil law, criminal law, the legal system, trial procedure, statutory analysis, law reform, and employee right reform, providing substantive information and strategies for dealing with these areas.

Orange County Legal Education Program (1977). K-12. Softbound three-hole binder packets with teacher and volunteer guides. (Copies of curriculum guide describing the program and giving overviews of the lessons are available for 50¢ from the Orange County Legal Education Program, 1300 B South Grand Avenue, Building B, Santa Ana, California 92705.) This program can be used as a guide for developing cooperative efforts between schools and legal professionals. Lessons covering a variety of law-related topics are presented detailing the role of the classroom teacher as well as the role of the classroom resource volunteer. The teacher's lesson plan outlines strategies to use both before and after the resource volunteer has been in the classroom. In addition to a suggested "script" for the classroom presentation, the resource volunteer's lesson plan includes a guide to developmental characteristics of children likely to take part in the lesson. Many of the suggestions included in the volunteer lesson plans could be easily adapted by resource volunteers from other professions as well.

Seven for the People (1979). Zena Collier. Senior High School. Hardback, 191 pages. Price: $7.79. (Simon and Schuster, 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10020.) This highly readable book takes a look at seven public interest organizations: the American Civil Liberties Union, Common Cause, the National Urban League, the League of Women Voters of the United States, the Sierra Club, the National Organization for Women, and Ralph Nader: Public Citizen. The issues which concern each group and the strategies used to achieve their goal of "preserving the rights and freedoms guaranteed to all citizens under the Constitution," are the focus of this very informative book. It is an excellent resource for teachers and students interested in working with others in their communities to improve our society.

Teaching about the Law (1975). Ronald A. Gerlach and Lynn W. Lamprecht. Teacher Resource Handbook. Price: $10.95. (Anderson Publishing Company, 646 Main Street, Cincinnati, Ohio 45201.) This book is an excellent general resource guide for teachers of law-related education. Of special interest to teachers planning community participation programs are the chapters entitled "Community Resources" and "A Call to Action: Incorporating Law into School Programs." The "Community Resources" chapter contains a number of useful strategies for involving resource vol-

unteers in the classroom as well as topics resource volunteers might be asked to present. The chapter also suggests tips on arranging and conducting field experiences. The "Call to Action" chapter suggests a number of ways the community can contribute to a law-related project. Both chapters should prove to be quite helpful.

Voter Education, State Government: The Decision-Making Process, and *Individual Rights* (1975-76). Developed by the Institute for Political/Legal Education. Senior High School. Softbound. *Voter Education* and *Individual Rights* are $10 each ; *State Government* is $12. (Order from the Institute for Political/Legal Education, 207 Delsea Drive, R.D. #4, Box 209, Sewell, New Jersey 08080.) This series of comprehensive curriculum guides provides teachers with blueprints for moving secondary students into the community to become active participants in the democratic political process. Specific activities such as organizing voter registration and canvassing drives, and constructing, implementing, and evaluating community surveys are designed to promote "learning through doing." Active citizenship is the theme of this series, which contains a wealth of community involvement activities for students.

Youth-in-Action: Program Implementation Manual (1977). Developed by the Constitutional Rights Foundation. Teacher Resource. Looseleaf, 75 pages. Price: $3.50. (Available through Constitutional Rights Foundation, 1510 Cotner Avenue, Los Angeles, California 90025.) This guide is designed to provide teachers with "how to" information on using resource people in the classroom, organizing field experiences, and providing opportunities for peer teaching. Each strategy is treated separately and teachers are given step-by-step procedures for employing them in the classroom. The looseleaf format is especially useful, since teachers will want to reproduce several pages from the guide. The guide includes forms, lesson plans, and annotated listings of materials and programs which teachers can use as additional resources.

Films

Justice: The Role of the Community (1979). Secondary. 16 mm color/sound film, 27 1/2 minutes. Purchase: $385; rental: $15. *Justice: Fear, Crime, and Prevention* (1979). Secondary. 16 mm color/sound film, 26 1/2 minutes. Purchase: $361; rental: $14. (Coronet Films, 65 East South Water Street, Chicago, Illinois 60601.) Both of these films examine community activities of groups striving to reduce crime and ensure justice in the community. In *Justice: The Role of the Community,* three community programs are highlighted—a volunteer service center to help troubled

youngsters, an ex-offender counseling program, and an inner-city community involvement program. *Justice: Fear, Crime, and Prevention* provides an indepth look at three successful approaches that community groups have taken to reduce crime and fear: a citizens band radio patrol, a joint task force of police and social workers, and a community youth service program. Both of these films show communities at work helping themselves.

Who Do You Tell? (1979). Elementary. 16 mm color/sound film, 12 minutes. Purchase: $195; weekly rental: $25. (MTI Teleprograms Inc., 4825 North Scott Street, Schiller Park, Illinois 60176.) This film explains to children how to solve problems in their lives by using family and community support systems. Strongly emphasized is the idea that children are not alone with their problems. Strategies for dealing with problems are generated through student discussions of issues ranging from "who do you tell about stolen bicycles" to "who do you tell about child abuse." Accompanying the film is a discussion guide which provides a number of useful suggestions for follow-up by teachers.

Organizations

Of course, organizations are an indispensable resource. The list below includes national community service and/or action groups. Most have offices within each state and, in some cases, in larger communities. For an extensive listing of national, state and local organizations of interest to law-related educators, see *Street Law: A Course in Practical Law* by Lee Arbetman, Edward McMahon, and Edward O'Brien, Second Edition, West Publishing Company, 1980 (Appendix A). (Available for $8.75 from West Publishing Company, 170 Old Country Road, Mineola, New York 11501.) In addition, the author identifications for each article of this book list LRE projects active in community-based education.

American Bar Association
1155 E. 60th St.
Chicago, IL 60637

American Civil Liberties Union
22 E. 40th St.
New York, NY 10016

Better Business Bureau
35 E. Wacker Drive
Chicago, IL 60601

Boy Scouts of America
P.O. Box 61030
Dallas/Ft. Worth Airport, TX 75261

Boys Clubs of America
771 First Avenue
New York, NY 10017

Chamber of Commerce
of the United States
1615 H St., NW
Washington, DC 20062

Common Cause
2030 M St., NW
Washington, DC 20036

Consumer Federation of America
1012 14th St., NW
Washington, DC 20005

Girl Scouts of the USA
830 Third Avenue
New York, NY 10022

League of Women Voters
1730 M St., NW
Washington, DC 20036

Legal Services Corporation
733 15th St., NW
Washington, DC 20005

National Association for the
Advancement of Colored People
1790 Broadway
New York, NY 10019

National Council of Juvenile and
Family Court Judges
University of Nevada
P.O. Box 8978
Reno, NV 89507

National Criminal Justice
Reference Service
1600 Research Blvd.
Rockville, Maryland 20850
Hotline: 800-638-8736

National District Attorneys Association
666 N. Lake Shore Drive
Chicago, IL 60611

National Organization for Women
425 13th St., NW
Suite 1048
Washington, DC 20004

National Urban League
500 E. 62nd St.
New York, NY 10021